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ABSTRACT

The proceedings of the twelfth annual meeting of the College Reading Association (with a focus on "Reading: Today's Needs, Tomorrow's Challenges") consisted of the following papers: "President's Address" (J. R. Newton); "Structure, Stricture in Reading Programs" (M. J. Weiss); "Why Use Informal Reading Inventories" (J. P. Kender); "Some Considerations in Establishing a College Reading Program" (W. Q. Davis); "Listening--A Silent Partner in Learning" (D. S. Leeds); "Some Characteristics of the Disabled College Reader" (D. J. McGinnis); "Interdisciplinary Approach to the Diagnosis of Severe Reading Disability" (J. C. Abrams); "Preparation of Reading Teachers for Junior Colleges (L. R. Cooper); "Who Assesses Reading Progress?" (R. A. Ironside); "Principles of Self-Reward for Study Skills" (D. M. Wark); "The Strategy Involved in the Teaching of Reading at Junior College and University Levels" (H. L. J. Carter); an abstract of "Oral Reading Patterns among Subgroups of Urban Disadvantaged" (L. M. Kasdon); an abstract of "Residential Segregation and Reading" (S. Sardy); "Emphasizing Language Development" (D. D. Sullivan); "The Voice of Authority: Fallacy and Phonics Instruction" (H. Newman); "Language Barriers of the Culturally Different" (P. C. Berg); "Effective Inservice Programs" (R. L. Byrne); an abstract of "Cooperative Inservice Programs" (J. R. Layton); "Implications of Early Stimulation for Teacher Education in Reading" (G. E. Mason); "Why Should I Read?" (D. L. Cleland); "Skills and Content--Taught Separately or Together?" (D. L. Shepherd); an abstract of "Educated Adult Reading Programs: What's Needed" (A. J. Lowe); "Qualifications and Preparation of Personnel in College Reading Programs" (C. R. Colvin); "Reading as a Facet of Human Development" (P. E. Stanton); "Evaluation of Cases of Learning Difficulties" (E. Foxe); "Classroom Practices for Culturally Disadvantaged College Students" (G. O. Phillips, Sr.); "Perceptive Reading Instruction" (E. M. Ladd); an abstract of "The Development of Comprehension Skills--An Inservice Strategy" (M. Carvo); an abstract of "Inservice Education Programs for Public School Teachers" (B. J. Ward); "Parents: The Missing Ingredient in Teacher Education" (V. M. Rentel); "An Interdisciplinary Approach to Teaching Reading" (S. J. Rauch); "Methods and Materials Used in a Successful Junior College Reading Program" (I. Freer); "Problems and Communication Programs in Community Colleges and Technical Institutes (J. M. Sawyer); and "Phonics: An Appraisal of Some Classroom-Tested Techniques" (J. E. George). (MS)

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Proceedings

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COLLEGE READING ASSOCIATION

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READING
TODAY'S NEEDS, TOMORROW'S CHALLENGES

Clay A. Ketcham, Editor
Associate Professor
Lafayette College

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THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

Philadelphia, Pa.

March 19-21, 1970

FOREWORD

SOME REFLECTIONS ON THE TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE COLLEGE READING ASSOCIATION

UBERTO PRICE, Program Chairman

Comments by the individuals who attended the Twelfth Annual Meeting of the College Reading Association in Boston on March 13, 14, and 15, 1969, indicate and attest to the success of the conference. The setting of the conference in historic Boston appropriately reinforced the conference theme—Reading: Today's Needs, Tomorrow's Challenges. Of course, place and setting can provide only a conducive climate for the program which is the heart of a meeting. Responses to calls for assistance were superb—whether it was taking care of registration, physical arrangements, serving as chairmen or discussants, preparation and reading of papers of an inspirational nature, or sharing a piece of research or a forecast of what should be done.

Because this monograph contains most of the papers which were presented, it can be inspected as to the real worth. Therefore, let us look briefly at some of the events which are not recorded on these pages. Four seminars were held at the Sheraton Boston Hotel on the evening preceding the regular meetings. These were most stimulating, informative, and challenging. The topics and leaders were:

1. Clinicians—Bill Hammond, James Layton, and Edward Sipay
2. Junior College Teachers—Imogene Freer, Joseph Nemeth, and Charles Winkler
3. Research—William Blanton, Alan Cohen, George Mason, and Betty Yarborough
4. Self-Concept and Reading—Edward Harrill, Richard Santeusanio, and Robert Wilson

At the banquet Dr. Daniel Fader delivered the A.B. Herr Memorial Address, "The Naked Children." At that time Marian L'Amoreaux accepted a plaque honoring Mr. Herr for the Rochester Institute of Technology. Before President Newton presented the plaque, Dr. Jerry Weiss delivered a eulogy honoring Mr. Herr.

The new executive Secretary-Treasurer, Dr. Leonard Braam, performed with excellence and expediency. President Newton's timely, profound, and realistic message was a challenge to the leadership of the president-elect and those to follow.

The whole conference was characterized by a high spirit of professional stimulation and information which cannot be captured in words. It was truly a meeting which reflected—Reading: Today's Needs, Tomorrow's Challenges.

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September 1, 1969

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President's Address

TODAY'S NEEDS — TOMORROW'S NECESSITIES

J. Roy Newton
State University of New York at Albany

A few years ago, standing beside one of the main roads leading out of the city, stood a weather-beaten red barn. It was like many other barns except that attached to it was a sign bearing the words, "Remedial Reading." A crudely painted hand pointed up a dirt road. Today the barn has been knocked down to make room for a dual highway. The dirt road is now improved. What is the status of the "Remedial Reading" teacher?

Unlike the General Electric Company, progress is not our most important product. In many areas of education we know better than we do Reading is no exception. Let us look at some things we are doing in Reading which could be done better.

Technical Vocabulary

One of the more obvious areas in need of improvement is the terminology we employ. One reading expert uses a term to mean one thing. Along comes a second writer and uses the same term to mean something entirely different. **Frustration**, **developmental**, and, of course, **dyslexia** are examples. Precise definitions may be hard to come by and we grant there should be room for differences of opinion, but until we can develop a technical vocabulary that others can understand, we have little right to be proud of our profession.

Federal Funds

A second area of concern involves the use of federal money. Many good things have been done. Software and hardware have been bought which otherwise would not be available. However, have we always spent wisely? Have we spent as though the money were our own?

Some of us sought to divert part of the money made available to schools into the training of teachers. Our goal was a relatively modest one: a competently trained reading teacher in each school building; more than one for larger buildings. What did we succeed in getting? NDEA Institutes and Locally Organized In Service programs.

Many of these institutes and LOIS programs have done an excellent job of acquainting classroom teachers with reading problems. However, the best of them are of relatively short duration. We had in mind the long term gains, both to boys and girls and to classroom teachers, which would be derived from day to day, week to week, month to month, and year to year contact with teachers who really knew their way around in this complex field called Reading. Instead of this we have hundreds of partially trained mini-specialists. Perhaps it is not too late, even as the purse strings are being tightened, to attempt to place first things first.

Research

Our research has not always been of high enough caliber nor has it always been well directed. Don't we as a group of professionals feel rather foolish when we try to make a comparison of the different ways of teaching reading only to discover that it is the teacher who makes the most variance? Should we not improve our techniques, develop new instruments where old ones are found to be unsatisfactory, and find out how different types of children learn?

Sophisticated measures of how individual children learn, together with strengths and weaknesses in learning modalities, would enable the classroom teacher of tomorrow to match method or methods, and combinations of methods to the individual. At present our research in the area of individual learning is not sufficiently advanced to permit of much more than a shotgun approach.

In addition to more and better research into pre-school learning, we need through research to develop better ways of testing what has been learned. In recent years intelligence tests have been seriously questioned for large numbers of our school population to the extent that the public schools of our largest city have abandoned their use. Are reading tests much better? With few exceptions standardized reading tests yield at best a general measure of reading ability. Often classroom teachers have need of specific information concerning specific reading skills in content subjects. Those of us engaged in teacher training resort to helping teachers construct "teacher-made" reading tests. Granted, teachers learn much by making these tests just as teachers of younger children learn from developing informal reading inventories. Should not such tests of specific reading skills be available for classroom use?

In addition to these relatively short tests of specific reading skills, the profession needs to address itself to the problem of developing a reading test which would do for reading what the Stanford-Binet does for intelligence testing. This will be no easy task. At a recent conference on the West Coast, a meeting bogged down because the experts could not agree on a definition of **reading.**

Efforts to develop a better measure of reading abilities would doubtless result in several new tests of reading ability. These are long over due. This in itself would be an accomplishment. If we could develop a test by which the efficacy of other tests could be measured, we should be able to avoid such dubious standards as **judgment of experts** and **psychological validity.**

Research should not be limited to the two areas of learning and testing. The National First Grade Reading Study and subsequent studies have shown what can be done with federal assistance. The reading profession could profit from a long-term priority list of further needed research. Such a listing would direct attention to areas in which a well coordinated attack is a necessity. It should be prepared by recognized members of our profession.

Teacher Training

Next, the reading profession must concern itself with the improvement of teacher training. Classroom teachers form the front line troops in any attack on reading problems. These teachers deserve better professional training than they are currently getting. From a quantitative point of view one course in Reading is not enough. It becomes even less adequate when the instructor has to teach both Reading and Language Arts in the same three-semester hour course. Qualitatively there is room for improvement also. Far too frequently the course is taught by a generalist. A modest goal here would be the inclusion of a top quality discrete course in the teaching of Reading taught by a specialist.

Such a modest proposal is far beyond some of our teacher-training institutions. We know how difficult it is for a group of professors of

Reading to convince their colleagues in the Department or School of Education to include a course for every teacher-in-training. The excuses are familiar. We are limited by the number of hours devoted to education courses, there are established priorities, and even, unhappily, sacred cow courses. A Department frequently is unable to improve the reading know-how of teachers in the pre-service training period because of its inability to persuade other department members that such a course is a necessity.

State teachers groups and associations of principals and superintendents have gone on record as favoring a course in Reading for all teachers. We need to go further than this. State Education Departments approve programs and review them periodically. If we can call on them for leadership in this area we, as a profession, should be able to ensure that reading instruction of suitable quality and quantity is included in all pre-service programs.

Leadership

Finally, the need which is rapidly becoming a necessity is the need for dynamic leadership. The field of Reading has become such a wide open pasture that any Tom, Dick, or Harry can tell us what to do. Admittedly we should work closely with knowledgeable experts in other areas, but we need a recognized body of professionals to represent our discipline. Some years ago an attempt was made to provide several levels of membership in the International Reading Association. This was turned down because it was feared such division might limit membership.

Reading has suffered for too long as an amorphous area in which anyone who can read is an expert. Steps should be taken to set standards and to organize the profession. Several steps can be taken. Efforts should be continued to obtain state certification for reading personnel. The number of states endorsing certification standards has increased from six in 1959 to approximately twenty in 1969. We should not stop here. The College Reading Association should investigate the possibility of licensing individuals and reading clinics. Currently both CRA and the International Reading Association have committees working on this. A majority of the other professions including law, medicine and psychology do just this. The size of the task before us is enormous but delaying action will merely worsen the situation.

There are, of course, many other needs which, with tomorrow, will become necessities. The five mentioned here—Technical Vocabulary, Federal Funds, Research, Teacher Training and Leadership—are a few of the most serious danger areas that call for our attention. I wish I could be optimistic about the future. The solution of our problems is not as easy as has been indicated in the preceding remarks. I am reminded that today is the tomorrow we worried about yesterday.

STRUCTURE, STRICTURE IN READING PROGRAMS

M. Jerry Weiss
Jersey City State College

Good afternoon—at the sound of the bleep it is today.

Today can be the happy experience of being here. It is a reunion, an anniversary, a birthday.

Today is a time for the mingling of dreams with actions to fulfill a personal commitment to self or others. It is a time for doing, not just talking, arguing, discouraging.

Today is a glorious sunrise; it is a spectacular sunset. It is a reminder that we have a philosophy for being, a purpose and a pleasure in living.

Today is more than time passing. Here are experiences, so precious, which hardly ever can be relived.

Today is the summation of each individual's experience, language, lifetime.

Only man can create today.

My words are humble attempts to describe the "nowness" I feel for a real involvement with life, with love, with learning. This presentation is an unscholarly escape from the world of skills, drills, workbooks, flashing frustration machines which force too many into a right-wrong, unfeeling, unemotional, statistical, structured, strictured existence. I am running away from the seemingly purposeless, non-passionate worlds of Dicks and Janes. I am running from the glorious kits that have as their main objective to help each child become perfect purple power builders in order to reach tomorrow.

There are no listening posts, for I hear only too well the guns in Vietnam, the conflicts and growing crises in the Middle East, the new taxes, the latest Apollo findings, the defeated school bond levies, the latest reports on teenagers finding hope in drugs and alienation, and the riots on campuses and on our city streets.

I ride with my guides, The Beatles, in their Yellow Submarine, leaving the unrealistic world filled with red pencils, foolish pressures, and Blue Meanies. I want to leave those who are more concerned with the mechanics of testing, general ability grouping, and stigmatizing by providing for youngsters little instruction based on what they really know about their students' interests, experiences, needs, abilities—all of which can never be solved by our so-called scope and sequence charts void of human development and personality.

To too many, schools have become a psychopathic world where children find themselves the victims of those who prescribe without real insight, thus defying every law of human love and learning. Here are the grading degraders who find standards in the darkness of failures.

Today, amid fires and barricades, there are the real screams for relevance in the most affluent land in the world. Why must the boat be rocked? Why must we teachers change? Haven't we been relevant?

"Mirror, mirror, on the wall,

What's the best text book for students all?"

There must be a perfect book, a perfect lesson plan, a perfect curriculum guide. Of course, you have it. But, listen—today—

Do you hear the voices of Indians on reservations who want life?

Look who's coming to dinner! The Blancks want life.

Some of my best friends are Mexican Americans or are from Appalachia and want life.

Phi Beta Kappas are finding more meaning in Benjamin and Mrs. Robinson than they did in most of the courses they took.

And where are the teachers? Who sees them? Who hears their voices?

"My supervisor won't let me change."

"I just don't have the time."

"You don't know my children."

"What are the parents or School Board going to say?"

"Where's the money going to come from?"

According to the latest U. S. Office of Unopportunity and Miseducation, more funds than ever before will be made available for more unused research. Now playing at our local schools: "I Am Curious Green." More money for what?

"Teacher, teacher on the wall

Where is the best laugh-in for all?"

We have made available millions of dollars to prove innovations are needed to help each child to reach a maximum potential. Millions of dollars were spent to prove there is no one most effective method of teaching reading, and people who love people knew that millions of dollars ago.

Yes, teachers who love pupils, who know their pupils, such as many of you right here, are involved today where the action is.

Where is the action?

The central ward in Newark is the scene of one of the greatest protest fires of our times. Visitors can see miles of burned out buildings which few cities can afford to rebuild. There stands one of the enigmas of our age, a tribute to the ineffectiveness of education and the conditions of poverty and degradation in the sixth wealthiest state in the nation.

In this section of the city stands Central High School. Fourteen hundred, predominantly black, students seek out an education that is realistic for them. Perhaps it is too much to ask that it also be relevant. About eighty faculty members, most of them dedicated and well trained, cope with problems which seemingly defy any experiences of their past. Truancy, apathy, poor reading and study habits, loss of books, and a deliberate refusal to do homework are just a few of the many plagues the teachers feel. There are fights in the halls, fires started in classrooms, and bomb scares to add to the confusion.

All tenth grade students participate in a reading program of sorts. Each student is assigned to a six week cycle, scheduled during the year. He leaves his English class at that time and reports to the reading center. Here a trained reading specialist works with him and about twenty others on skill needs for a period a day. The thrilling, gripping workbooks of our age and flashing and listening mechanisms of our reading-technological generation are the main ingredients for meaningful instruction. One of the teachers said: "If nothing else happens to the student, he does learn he can move from one assignment to another, from one section of the room to another, on his own without causing a disturbance."

Diagnosis and evaluation are the same. The student is given a standardized test when he enters, and at the end of six weeks he is tested again. The reading teachers assign the English grade for this six week period.

There is no follow-up in any classes. When the student goes to his classes, lectures and assignments go on as if reading needs operate in a vacuum.

This is the structure stricture in so many schools where the fires of our time burn on.

In Detroit, Milwaukee, and New York I have heard of similar situations, told by frustrated and dedicated teachers who are frightened, discouraged, and eager to escape to suburbia.

More teachers have been so concerned with grouping and tracking and dress codes that they have lost sight of humanity. Every ounce of research available has proven time and time again the dangerous effects of labeling children and doing so little about the labels. Teachers speak of individual differences as long as the differences can all open their books to page 18, work the problems therein, can dribble the ball with equal skill in spite of coordination difficulties, can recite the first 37 lines of The Canterbury Tales and identify who said this quote to whom with what effects in what play?, can name all of the states and their capitals in twenty-seven minutes. Students for a Democratic Society and others on drugs once were confused by the futile assignments, tests, and workbook which prove so little about the creative, dynamic nature of man so badly needed for the issues of the Mid-east, Vietnam, and poverty crises.

Yes there are differences. And there is nothing so unequal as the equal treatment of unequals. The teacher who is satisfied with average results can never be a top-notch teacher. He is often the type of person who is secure with his immortal manual, thrilled with his own voice, and can be involved in curriculum planning as long as he doesn't have to think. The sounds of silence have become the sounds of dissent. Disenchanted youth and faculty have made 1968-1969 the year of confrontation. God only knows what 1969-1970 will bring. Assassins' bullets which found their marks within the dreamers, emphasize the hypocrisy of any educational establishment that thinks waves aren't being made on the national and international scene. And who teaches of Peace ? ? ? In isolation?

If there is to be action, students want to be involved. The structured stricture of classrooms and bells, of schedules and lustless, listless texts and lectures has been challenged by some American youth who do not feel that the road to glory is paved with passive, apathetic behavior. Good grades do not necessarily reflect the messianic message for mankind. Too much talking with little doing is becoming the label pinned on teachers by those citizen critics who find their just reward by voting down bond issues and levies because education has been of so little **internal** value to them.

North, east, south, west—today there is a generation gap. (Judith Viorst has written a beautiful poem about this in her book, **"It's Hard To Be Hep Over Thirty** and Other Tragedies of Married Life. New American Library, Inc., 1968.)
William Birnbaum, in his book, **Overlive: Power, Poverty and the Uni-**

versity, describes our go-go society with all of the pressures and privileges and miscommunications therein.

> My father just doesn't understand.
> He admits that perhaps he and his generation
> have not made the system work as well as it
> should. But I try to explain to him that's
> not the issue. The issue is to change systems,
> to create a new one. He gets very upset—
> emotional—or silent.
>
> —From a conversation with a student
> at Cornell University, February 1968.

My son doesn't seem to understand. His mother and I have made great sacrifices to pay the bills at this university. We've not bought a car in five years, and when tuition went up this year, we washed out our trip to Florida.

And there are other things. His mother is not well and when he brings home grades like this and talks about taking off a year to hitchhike to the West, she gets very upset—I mean physically sick. And then there's the war and his draft status.

We only want him to have the things we haven't had—the chances I never got. But he won't talk about it. He just doesn't understand.

— From a conversation with a father at Long Island
University, February 1967.

The gap goes on and on. It pulls us emotionally and we rely on pills for relief and to encourage disbelief.

Teacher, teacher, on the wall—
What's the greatest lesson for all?
Who shall pass? Who shall fail?
Who comes up heads? Who comes up tails?
Who gets A's? Who gets D's?
Who shall testify to the truth of these?

There is a gap in many classrooms. So little soul-searching takes place. What are we really trying to do to help the "now generation?"

Isn't school more than the mastery of skills?

Aren't their attitudes and interests to be developed?

Shouldn't we re-examine values and show students that we are really searching for truth and justice for all?

What books reach the "now generation?"

Isn't there a relationship between technology and humanity?

What price creativity?

Where is there room for individualism?

What experiences enable me to explain my feelings on these ideas?

I am more than a fact or an I.Q. score.

I am alive. I am a Now Person in a Now World. I am looking for Now Ways to reach Now People.

Now it is today.

Today is a change in clothes.

Today is a change in job opportunities.

Today is a new love, a new lease on life.

Today is a successful heart transplant.

Today is a new song.

Today is our sincere prayer of thanks for being alive.

Today is a new lesson, filled with inspiration, and hope and opportunities for success.

Today is a smiling face.

Today is happiness and peace.

Today is now—a time for thoughts leading to action.

For today is the beginning of the rest of your life.

WHY USE INFORMAL READING INVENTORIES

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Informal reading tests can be used for a variety of reasons but one of their most important functions is the placement of children for instructional purposes. Informal reading tests are constructed from graded word lists, from sentence samples, and from graded passages. This paper will be limited to a discussion of a particular type of informal reading test that is more popularly known as an informal reading inventory.[1] To be more specific, an informal reading inventory is defined as a teacher-made test designed to evaluate an individual's performance in reading. It consists of a series of graded passages which increase in difficulty at each successive level. At any one level of difficulty there are two selections, one for oral reading and one for silent reading, each of which is followed by comprehension questions. The examinee is required to read for definitely set purposes and answer the questions orally. The examiner can obtain measures of the examinee's oral reading and silent reading performance as well as his understanding of what he reads. This information is useful in placing pupils for instruction.

Durrell[2] made one of the earliest presentations of the construction, administration, and scoring of an informal reading inventory; however, Betts[3] treated the subject most extensively. Betts' criteria, especially those of 95 per cent word recognition and 75 per cent comprehension at the instructional level, are widely quoted. It is interesting to note that some of Betts' criteria, notably the 95% word recognition, came from a study conducted by Killgallon[4] in which he tested a sample of only 41 fourth-grade pupils on an informal reading inventory, and on the basis of his analysis suggested guidelines for reading performance. Only a few other experimental studies have been undertaken for the purpose of developing criteria for using informal reading inventories. Among these were studies by Cooper[5] and McCracken.[6] Nevertheless, the criteria formulated by Betts still enjoy the greatest popularity.

Although informal reading inventories are widely used, they are not without their limitations as well as their strengths: factors which are the main considerations of this paper. Among the weaknesses attributed to informal reading inventories is the fact that only two samples, one for oral reading and one for silent reading, represent the text from which the selections are taken. This limited sampling makes it incumbent upon the test constructor to exercise great care in selecting the passages for inclusion in the inventory. This is often rather difficult to do. The problem may not be so critical in primary-level reading materials where vocabulary is relatively well-controlled and where concept load is light and relatively homogeneous. But the problem becomes more acute at higher levels.

Another limitation of informal reading inventories is the small number of questions that are used to check comprehension. It has been suggested that from five to ten questions be included in the comprehension checks that accompany each level, hardly an adequate sample if one considers that these questions are intended to estimate a pupil's comprehension over an entire text. Again the problem is more serious at higher reading levels than at lower levels. But the paucity of questions can be attributed to the brevity of the selections which, in itself, is another limitation.

Scorer reliability is another problem that is further compounded by the fact that it is difficult to recommend any particular set of criteria for scoring an informal reading inventory. In another article[7] I have shown that the few sets of criteria that have been derived experimentally are subject to questions that make it difficult to recommend any one set over any other, or as a matter of fact, to recommend any particular set as completely definitive. Although there are many areas of similarity among these different sets of criteria, there are some very basic areas of differences that would affect the scores yielded by an informal reading inventory depending upon which set was used.

An informal reading inventory can be made more relevant to the instructional situation if one selects passages from actual instructional materials. Certainly, it is evident that the placement of pupils in instructional materials must be as accurate as possible. Cooper writes:

> Some individuals advocate the use of an IRI based on some little-used series of readers, and using the results attained on this inventory for choosing suitable materials for any series . . . The writer feels that such an assumption is absurd and unsound. Anyone who has examined basal reading books of different series know that all third readers are not necessarily of the same level of difficulty, nor are preprimers, sixth readers or books of any other designated level.[8]

The point is well taken. Undoubtedly, the inaccuracies that would result from using non-instructional materials would be even greater if narrative materials were used to predict placement in subject-matter materials than if narrative materials from one basal series were used to predict placement in another basal series. The time involved, then, in constructing a new inventory whenever new instructional materials are to be used is another limitation.

The role of the examiner who administers the informal reading inventory is conspicuously important. In fact, it might be said that the usefulness of an informal reading inventory, other assumptions being satisfied, is in direct proportion to the knowledge and skill of the person who administers it. The lack of knowledge and skill on the part of an examiner, then, can be another shortcoming in the use of informal reading inventories.

Finally, the time involved in administering an informal reading inventory is considerable. Depending upon the individual testing situation an informal reading inventory can take anywhere from a few minutes up to almost an hour to administer. An examiner cannot make extensive use of an individual informal reading inventory unless he is willing to expend an almost inordinate amount of time and effort, especially when many pupils need to be examined.

Despite these limitations, an informal reading inventory has an important characteristic that warrants the considerable time and effort that is involved in its construction and administration; namely, the considerable relevance the instrument has to the instructional situation. The examinee is required to perform many of the activities that he would ordinarily perform in a reading lesson. If the passages used in the inventory are taken from the instructional materials, as suggested above, the use of an informal reading inventory to insure the proper placement of pupils in reading material for instructional purposes is, at least, partially justified. Certainly, there is more justification in this point of view than in the point of view that would use the grade equivalent scores from standardized tests to assign instructional levels. There is no need to mention the studies that have been conducted which demonstrate the inadequacy of standardized tests for assigning instructional levels. As a matter of fact, a simple inspection of the table of norms for one well-known standardized reading test will illustrate the point most effectively. A raw score of zero on the test in question has a corresponding grade equivalent score 2.0. The implication for placing a non-reader in an instructional materials based on this grade-equivalent score is evident.

Another important advantage of using an informal reading inventory is that the examiner can obtain immediately useful information by questioning the examinee face-to-face. This face-to-face situation offers opportunities for obtaining diagnostic information that is virtually impossible to obtain from the results of a group paper and pencil test. It might be argued that a standardized diagnostic test would serve the same purpose as an informal reading inventory. While this may be true, the matter of relevance to the instructional situation is raised again, and since relevance is a major component of validity, the informal test has the edge.

This accepting point of view does not mean that the questions that have been raised can be ignored. On the contrary. But the questions have to be asked in a wider context. It is difficult to answer the question about which set of criteria should be used to measure acceptable comprehension, for example, when no one is really sure about the precise nature of comprehension. Even if comprehension were defined precisely, the question of how much comprehension is enough would still remain. The literature on the scoring of informal reading tests is replete with disagreement on this point. Some say that understanding 90 per cent of the material at the instructional level is necessary, while others feel that 75 per cent is enough; still others contend that 60 per cent is sufficient—and on it goes.

Another confusing term is **reader level.** What does reader level really mean? Does it mean the same thing from one set of materials to another? Does it refer to the complexity of the vocabulary in a given story, or does it refer to the complexity of the word analysis skills that are treated in a given lesson? These questions have been asked before, but they are worth repeating.

It is true, then, that an informal reading inventory has limitations, and it is true that there are many unanswered and even unanswerable questions; but these problems cannot be allowed to relegate professional action to a state of academic limbo. Decisions still have to be made, even if they are based upon purely pragmatic considerations at times. The only alternative to inertia is to act on the basis of existing knowledge, however imperfect it may be, while at the same time admitting that the process of groping for the truth is present in most of our work.

This speaker feels, then, that until something better is found, an informal reading inventory is useful for determining instructional levels. Perhaps it is one of the best means there is, at least for now.

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SOME CONSIDERATIONS IN ESTABLISHING A COLLEGE READING PROGRAM

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Each year the tonnage seems to grow as those involved with solving reading problems become increasingly more expert at publication. What we have is a dearth of general solutions to general problems, and some good home remedies that apparently work well only on local levels. Rather than submit a series of such "answers" then, let's consider questions that must be answered. The actual launching of a successful college reading program then will depend on local situations.

1. Needs: What are the needs of the college student population? With increased insistence on both inclusion and attention to the minority groups, and especially to the so-called experience-deprived, no school is safe anymore. Once we might have fooled ourselves into believing all those accepted and enrolled were college students, that is, people achieving as high school graduates; now, almost any survey taken will dispute this. For example, at Potsdam, a survey of entering freshmen revealed that whereas many of our students would achieve at the 50th percentile elsewhere, these students achieved at the 17th percentile on our own campus. These students, average according to na-

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tional norms, were in deep trouble on our campus. On every campus such a group can be identified. For this group, we must ask, will the reading course be geared to specific skill needs, or to vague general areas such as Vocabulary Improvement? Can an individual student work on his particular problem areas or must all students take on all course content indiscriminately? Must such a course include a speed reading sequence, or can this be offered separately to more able students?

2. Commitment: What is the commitment by the academic faculty? Will such a course be seen as a college, not a high school, course? Will it be considered remedial or developmental? Perhaps this can be answered in light of another question: Who initiated the establishment of such a program—the administration, an interested faculty group, students, or an entire English Department? Will this group retain its enthusiasm through an interdepartmental cooperation, or at least communication?

3. Funds: Can a program be instituted mid-way through a fiscal year? In addition to materials will there be secretarial help? Will course resources have to be limited or can a variety of books, workbooks, and manuals be easily supplied because the college operates on a book rental basis?

4. Climate: Will this program be viewed as serving only the purposes of "dummies"—will it be a dumping ground for learning disabilities, badly maladjusted juvenile delinquents, and those who are mentally incapable of passing a normal college program? Will the course be viewed as valuable enough to warrant college credit? Will the need for such a program dictate some sort of mandatory enrollment?

5. Materials: Will all purchases be decided by reading people, or by a college business manager? Will there be provision for laboratory experiences, such as a manipulatory environment to teach basic study skills? Will space be made available which students can easily use for supplementary work outside of class?

6. Leadership: Will course needs be served by a specially trained reading person? Will such an expert also be personable enough to easily relate to tense students suffering from years of gross academic inefficiency and failure?

7. Priority: Will the program be seen by the students as a "survival

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program?" Everywhere else in the college curriculum he will be sinking; yet the over-extended student is asked to add more hours to his academic over load, and it must seem like handing a drowning man a drink of water. Such a program supports the student most when his need exists, like an inner-tube. It is most important, yet often is dropped first.

8. Evaluation: Must the program match certain statistical expectations, perhaps based on achievement test scores, or be dumped? How will real gains be measured? For example, will some controlled investigations be conducted concerning changes in grade point averages a year after the course has been completed? Will there be continuous evaluation of student progress and teacher effectiveness throughout the course? Will this be communicated to the student? Will evaluation consist solely of vocabulary and comprehension quizzes? Or will student interest and attitude be inventoried? Will test results be weighed for validity, and will these give the program necessary changes in direction, so that teaching will be of a prescriptive nature? How are grades to be determined? Must the course still be rigidly measured on a point compilation basis, or on a basis of individual student improvement in attitude, drive, and achievement? Must there be a final exam, where facts are called for, in a course where skills, not rote memory, were really the major emphasis? Will the student be able to effectively transfer course content into his academic environment because he has been put through a series of realistic problem-solving situations utilizing skills effectively demonstrated in class?

Conclusion: From these many questions, there seem to emerge six general considerations that should be taken. There must be an evaluation of existing needs and related resources, upon which a program philosophy is built, communicated, and implemented. And, finally, the program must be re-evaluated in terms of initial objectives and re-designed according to these results.

LISTENING — A SILENT PARTNER IN LEARNING

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Listening is not a new skill to the field of education. Neither is the research which has been conducted in this area. Munsterberg and Bigham[1] published the results of an experiment involving reactions to oral, visual and combined oral-visual presentations of a series of numbers and letters in 1892-93. Using a small adult population, they reported the following: 1) visual memory exceeded aural memory when they act independently; 2) when part of the presentation was visual and part aural, the aural exceeded the visual and 3) an auditory-visual presentation was superior to either of the single presentations. Expanding upon the Munsterberg-Bigham research, Kirkpatrick[2], in 1894, investigated which of the three impressions—visual, auditory or motor—is best retained. A sample of 162 girls and 127 boys in grades 3 through college were given three series of ten stimulus items, each series presented in a different mode. The first series was read aloud one at a time, the second series, words, were individually viewed and the third series involved concrete representations for the stimuli, a bottle was shown for the word bottle. No stimulus items was repeated in any of the presentations. Following the last stimulus in each series, an immediate recall test was given in which the subject was required to list as many words as he could. A delayed recall test was given three days later. Kirkpatrick reported that "concrete objects were remembered better than the written names and the latter better than the spoken names."

These studies serve to indicate that interest in the field of listening is not new. Neither is the interest in listening skills or improvement in listening comprehension new to teachers at all levels. A review of the research indicates that an interest in the field of listening has received considerable attention, if the number of publications is used as a general reference, within the past ten years. The number of articles published within the past ten years is almost twice the number published between the years 1919-1955.

An approach to the study of listening comprehension has been to classify the type of listening behavior and then assign listeners, based on their behavior, to the different classifications. Among the classifications in the literature are: accurate, appreciative, attention, active, concentrative, conversational, creative, critical, hostile, informative, purposeful and responsive. Since the above classifications overlap in the areas they are designed to delineate, four classifications set forth by Smith[3]—attentive, appreciative, analytical and marginal—have been chosen as representative terms. Attentive listening is the type of listening where most external stimuli of a distractible nature are eliminated and the listener focuses his attention on one person or form of communication, such as the radio, a lecture, or a telephone conversation. Attentive listening may or may not involve two-way conversation. Analytical listening is attentive listening for the purpose of respondng in one way or another and involves the skill of thinking. This type of listening is referred to, in the literature, as critical listening for which a considerable body of information exists. Appreciative listening is that type used when one listens for enjoyment, is more relaxed and in a less tense state. Marginal listening is the kind of listening where there are two or more distractions present. A good example of marginal listening is the child who is doing his homework while listening to the radio. A fifth classification, that of hostile listening[4] describes the interested listener who comes to the situation with his mind as completely closed as if he were an out-spoken antagonist.

Terminology alone is not adequate to communicate the listening process to the audience. One must examine more deeply what constitutes and controls the listener and the listening process. The essential elements of listening are both varied and complex. In discussing these elements, an examination of the factors influencing the listener will be discussed under the classifications of psychological, physiological and semantic.

Canfield, Barbara, and Elson and Peck have postulated general factors. Canfield[5] suggested that what most people call listening is a combination of physical and psychological functioning. He listed the psychological skills as auditory memory, auditory discrimination, ability to adjust experience at hand to the general interest and intelligence of the listener and refined comprehension skills. Since these factors influence each other, they can not be completely isolated. Elson and Peck[6] discussed factors in terms of listening failure. They believe that listening fails because listeners fashion their listening to fit their own prejudices, limited background, knowledge, emotional states or desires. Barbara[7] introduced the "non-verbal" factor of communication referring to the interplay of gestures, feelings, bodily reactions, glances, et cetera and their effect on human behavior.

The specific factors of attention, perception, emotions and value judgment have been discussed by several writers. Attention, the first of the psychological factors, has been discussed by Ruch,[8] Berrin,[9] Hedde and Brigance,[10] and Rogers.[11] Attention and interests are related in that an audience gathers, usually, because there is an interest in the topic presented and the speaker may hold their attention by maintaining that interest. As pointed out by Hedde and Brigance, "listening depends on giving **instant attention.**" The spoken word comes the listener's way only once and must be heard immediately. Attention, being of a selective nature, tends to determine the listener's behavior and consequently is considered to be a significant factor.

Another psychological factor, **perception,** is discussed by Bryant,[12] Ruch, [13] and Weinberg.[14] Bryant indicated that perception is a response which follows attention and assigns meaning to stimuli. Meaning is the result of the listener recognizing the stimuli, labeling them and referring them to his experience. Perception can only lead to a response through satisfaction of motives or drives which are present in the listener or the audience. It is important for the listener to realize that a human being never experiences complete and total comprehension.[15] It is essential to understand that everything cannot be perceived as it is or appears to be. Individual capacities, experiences, beliefs, and potential change the actual picture. The human mind tends to treat successively that which, in nature, happened simultaneously. Thus the listener selects and discards and finally responds to parts of the message which relate to his understanding. Therefore he may accept or respond to a new message, one that he interprets as the one the speaker intended. Rationalization enters into this process when the listener's security is threatened by what he hears and at the same time the truth of the presentation cannot be denied. The possible alternatives left to him, in this situation, are distortion or refusal to listen further.

Psychological factors would not be complete without the inclusion of the emotional component. In different degrees, various emotions affect listening habits. The listener has the ability to turn off what he doesn't want to hear. If an idea presented arouses an emotional feeling which is not pleasant to the listener, the resultant reaction may not be conducive to good listening. The listener may proceed in a direction of planning a rebuttal, formulating a design to embarrass the speaker or find supporting evidence to substantiate his emotions rather than to listen to the speaker.[16] The emotional component tends to direct the listener's attitude toward the presentation, an approach which ultimately may be one of acceptance or rejection.

The final psychological factor to be considered is that of value judgment. The listener must attempt to weigh and evaluate: assumptions the speaker makes, his own prejudices as well as those of the speaker, the amount and accuracy of the evidence, the logic of the presentation, and the probability of the conclusions.

The next area of factors influencing the listening process to be considered are the physiological ones. Among the factors believed to influence the listener are: physical posture (the manner of his body during the listening period), perception of space through hearing (listener stimulation by sound waves reaching the ears at different times and placement of microphones to counteract this factor), perception of time (interest's effect on boredom and the time spent in the process of listening), conditions under which the presentation is made (temperature, humidity, mental and muscular fatigue) and the functioning of the somatic system. Physical adaptation to the rate of listening (compressed speech) is an area which is currently receiving attention in research studies.

Another aspect receiving current attention is hearing loss in which the listener is not able to receive the message as it was transmitted. Froman[17] in discussing the role of the brain reported that the person who reacts too quickly to stimuli uses only the thalmus (subbrain) which registers the stimuli and the cortex (upper brain) never gets a chance to consider them. The thalmus's task is to channel sensory impressions to the cortex and to, relay the cortex message to the muscles. In case of an emergency or snap judgment, the cortex can be short-circuited. Since the cortex holds all the storied memories, and decides on various courses of action, it is a very valuable part of decision making.

The third and final group of factors are the semantic ones over which the speaker might direct most effective control. Effective communication depends upon the comprehension of the meanings of the words as they are used in context and relate to agreeable experiences between the speaker and listener, each of them slightly different since no two people have exactly the same experience. Consider that, for the 500 most commonly used words in the English language, there are more than 14,000 dictionary definitions.[18] Add the factors of "non-verbal" components, prejudices and attitudes and the tremendous problem which might exist is placed in perspective.

Ambiguity may cause distortion in meaning in the communication process. In analyzing distortions, Minnick[19] suggested five objective distortions of meaning that spring from ambiguity: one arises because the communicator does not make clear in the context which of several meanings of a term he intends, or because he uses terms unknown to the audience (ordinary ambiguity); another arises because the communicator uses a term for which he stipulates a meaning at variance with the common meaning (occult ambiguity); a third arises when the communicator uses a term that has a connotative meaning at variance with the intended meaning (connotative ambiguity); a fourth arises when the communicator uses, without amplification, terms whose meaning is largely subjectively determined (subjective ambiguity); and the last is caused when a term is expressed by the communicator in such a manner that the audience is uncertain of its meaning (behavorial ambiguity). He grouped subjective distortions by the characteristics of the frames of reference from which they are believed to arise: 1) to evaluate frames of reference in simple either-or categories; 2) to expect our frames of reference to fit experience in a stable and consistent way; 3) to limit or adjust perception to make it agreeable to our needs and values; 4) to build frames of reference that emphasize similarities and ignore differences; 5) to perceive only certain attributes of things, and 6) to ignore relationships that are not contiguous in space or time.

In summary, the speaker should be aware of the psychological, physiological and semantic factors attendant upon his presentation. These factors, singly or in concert, may act either positively or negatively depending upon how they affect the listener.

What creates or distinguishes a good listener from a poor one? To listen well, one must have the capacity and desire to examine critically, to evaluate and reshape values, attitudes and relationships. A listener needs courage to listen totally to another person's ideas while having his own ideas questioned.[20] Intelligence used with skills, various capacities, discipline of one's own will, concentration, patience, the ability to maintain silence, respect for others, attention, imagination and the capacity to think critically are other essentials of good listening.[21]

Certain characteristics have been attributed to the poor listener, whether in school or in business. Nichols's list[22] of the characteristics of poor listeners has been widely quoted as a summary of the behavior of this class of individual. The poor listener 1) calls the subject uninteresting, and after hearing the speaker for a few moments, decides that the material will be dull; 2) finds immediate fault with the speaker's personality or delivery; 3) gets over-stimulated by one point in the speech; 4) tries to take all notes in outline form and gives up when this is not possible; 5) listens only for facts; 6) fakes attention to the speaker; 7) tolerates or creates distractions; 8) lazily avoids difficult expository material; 9) lets emotion-laden words arouse his personal antagonism; and 10) wastes the advantage of thought speed over speech speed by spending his time waiting to talk, pretending to listen, arguing silently with the speaker, or wool-gathering.

The listless listener, another name for the poor listener, is given three main faults: first, he listens too much in a self-defensive way, afraid that the speaker might disturb his accustomed beliefs and attitudes: second, he pays too much attention to the speaker and the symbols of his authority, to listen effectively; and third, he translates what the speaker says into the language he would have used had he been delivering the message.[23] Zelko[24] described the poor listener as one who is too self-concerned, lets prejudices affect him, doesn't like the speaker, dreams, listens in order to reply rather than to understand, and tries to figure out how to refute a point while it is being presented and pretends to listen.

Crocker[25] stated that the poor listener falls into the trap of not listening because: 1) he fails to listen when he believes what he wants to believe; 2) he makes no constant attempt to force himself to listen, such as taking notes; 3) he measures everything which is said in terms of his own prejudices; 4) he doesn't like the speaker and considers either the speaker or himself to be superior and therefore builds up a case against him; 5) he looks for faults; 6) he is afraid of the speaker's prestige and 7) he likes his own way of doing things and resists change as threatening his security.

The poor listener is not solely responsible for his poor listening. The speaker may be a contributing factor in that he fails to contribute his share of responsibility to the situation. The speaker's obligation may be clearly stated by McBurney and Wrage's[26] five directions: 1) analyze the audience; 2) determine what information they already have about the subject; 3) discover the attitude of the audience; 4) determine how their participation will be affected by the physical setting and atmosphere and 5) decide if the audience is a homogeneous group and if not, how to approach them and the topic. If the speaker is sensitive to his audience and not primarily concerned with his delivery, he may alter his presentation to maintain audience interest and respectivity thus reducing the possibility of losing contact with the group. To be a good listener, Weaver and Ness[27] suggest the following points: 1) consciously try to eliminate distraction; 2) adopt positive attitudes; 3) listen to difficult material; 4) make good use of the difference between speed of speech and speed of thought; 5) distinguish between main points and sub-points; 6) discover how a speaker supports or does not support his ideas and 7) read widely and converse often to build a background for listening. Just listing these ideas does little to help implement them. The student entering college has habits which are well-formed and an attempt to change his pattern may be difficult. Perhaps, had the college student learned more productive habits in his earlier education, it would not be necessary to attempt to alter his current performance. The responsibility of helping to form good or productive listening skills rests with the members in the audience. If we include in our teacher-education courses methods of teaching listening, utilize these skills in classes conducted in allied content-oriented courses, perhaps those whom we prepare to teach will in turn communicate what they have been taught.

How might the teacher at the college level or in the elementary or secondary school teach listening? Most of the methods for teaching listening are designed for implementation at the elementary or secondary level. The Argyle Programmed Instruction course[28] is one which might be adapted for use at the college level. Another college adaptation might be the use of a "language laboratory" in which select material is presented to the group who must attend since the information is transmitted via earphone.

The Lincoln-Douglas type presentation is another variation involving listening. Two students present opposite aspects of a controversial issue. The class is required to: 1) summarize the discussions and 2) evaluate the arguments presented. Variations of this theme involve listening to "news" analyses or statements of position heard on different radio or television stations. The social studies teacher might include this as part of her course. Working together, the English teacher might assign a theme in which the class is required to evaluate a major political speech and a discussion of the evaluation held in the social studies class.

A different, and possibly enjoyable experience in listening training, would be to calculate Ewing's speaking-listening index.[29] This index is a measure of a speaker's success in conveying his thoughts to his audience, but would seem to have value as a measure of listening ability as well. While the speech is being delivered, students write what they believe is the theme of the speech and each of the chief supporting ideas. These are, then, compared to the speaker's own written statements of theme and supporting ideas. The formula for measuring the success of the speaker is:

$$I = \frac{P + 2C}{.02\, N_I\, N_e}$$

where I index; P number of partially correct statements by all members of the class; C number of correct statements by all members of the class; N_I number of speaker's items and N_e number of listeners. The speaker should strive for a listening index of 60 or better. Such a class activity should provide listening motivation as well as lively discussion.

In summarizing what has been presented, it is important that both the listener and the speaker be aware that listening is a two-way street. Both participants of this process should be aware of the factors affecting listening comprehension. Students should be acquainted with the characteristics of the effective and the non-effective listener. They should be taught how to listen, not told to listen. Training should begin in the primary grades and be continued, in all areas, through their entire academic career. Research supports the statement that more than forty per-cent of an individual's waking time is spent in some type of listening activity. Therefore it is most appropriate to close with the statement that listening is a silent partner in learning.

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SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DISABLED COLLEGE READER AS SEEN IN THE PSYCHO-EDUCATIONAL CLINIC

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Teachers of reading at the college level are confronted with some new problems and with the intensification of old ones. In the Psycho-Educational Clinic on the campus of Western Michigan University some of these problems are becoming more and more apparent. This paper will identify some characteristics of our students and their instructional and therapeutic needs. Several implications are made concerning remediation and the teaching of reading at the college level.

The Clinic, Center for Individual Study and Teacher Preparation

The Psycho-Educational Clinic was organized in the fall of 1932, and one of the clinic's chief activities throughout its 37 years of service has been to examine those students with reading difficulties who have

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been referred to the clinic by the Campus School, public schools, and university teachers. It has, furthermore, been the function of the clinic to suggest and attempt corrective work in the language arts. During the same year, the members of the staff introduced a new course, Techniques of Learning and Adjustment, which was intended to help the students of the university who had study and learning difficulties. In September, 1944, a reading laboratory for college students was established, the first of its kind to be opened by any college or university in Michigan. Classes in Adult Reading, formerly called the reading laboratory, have been conducted each summer as well as during the academic year and provide an excellent opportunity for teachers to observe the developmental and therapeutic measures which are being applied. Throughout the year graduate students serving as assistants observe and participate in the clinical studies and treatment of children with reading problems and in the corrective program provided for college students.

In the course, Adult Reading, for which two hours of academic credit are given, instructional and developmental procedures are applied in helping college students improve their reading skills as they do their regular academic work. A goal oriented approach is utilized so that each student can accomplish his purpose as he makes use of the aid which has been provided for him by his instructor. Class periods generally consist of lectures, demonstrations, and laboratory periods in which the student has an opportunity to do both guided and free reading. Frequent conferences are held with each student. Evaluation studies[1] of the effectiveness of the work in Adult Reading indicate that the materials and procedures employed are of value in improving not only the reading ability of college students but their point-hour-ratios as well.

Some Characteristics of Disabled College Readers

Investigations based upon interviews, test scores, and the academic records of students enrolled in Adult Reading reveal an inadequate experiential background for academic achievement at the college level. One-third of the students are attending the university on governmental and foundation grants and were accepted even though they did not meet the prescribed admission standards. Many of these students who display inferior vocabularies and limited language skills seem to be highly motivated to make the most of this unexpected opportunity to attend college. Reading ability as measured by the Iowa Silent Reading Test for all students enrolled in Adult Reading range from a percentile of 1 to 90. Although the majority of students are freshmen, many sophomores, juniors and seniors participate in the course. Most of the students have experienced academic difficulty and want to improve their reading in the content areas.

Additional data resulting from the administration of an informal reading inventory[2] shows some physical, psychological, and environmental factors which are characteristic of college students who are now attempting to improve their reading skills.

Physical Configurations

Approximately 29 percent of the students reported that letters run together when they read, that their eyes hurt or water when reading, that they have difficulty in seeing distant objects, and that frequently they are unable to recognize a difficult word as a whole without spelling it out. Seventy-two percent reported that they sleep less than eight hours at night. Surveys show that the incidence of health factors for some of our students are on the increase.

Psychological Configurations

Approximately 83 percent of the students attempting to improve their ability to read reported that they had difficulty in concentrating while reading. Twenty-seven percent thought that they were not as intelligent as their associates and reported that they were worrying about past and present failures. Thirty-eight percent said they felt sad for no reason at all and that their problems prevented their sleep at night. Approximately 46 percent found it hard to forget their troubles and said that it was not easy for them to forget a wrong that had been done to them. Thirty-three percent were afraid that unfortunate things would happen to them and stated that they were happier when a child. Fifty-two percent said they wish to do the right thing but sometimes feel that they cannot get themselves to do it. Fears, worries, tensions, and frustrations are apparently ever present in the lives of these students.

Environmental Factors

In an inventory of environmental factors 52 percent of the students enrolled in Adult Reading explained that as a result of their early background and training, they had not developed a responsibility for success in reading, and 62 percent reported that they did not see

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their parents and other members of their family spend their leisure time in reading. Furthermore, 68 percent said that their associates and friends did not arouse their interest in books and other reading materials. Twenty-nine percent pointed out that they were living now in an environment which did not stimulate an interest in reading. These data suggest that sociological and economic factors can be related to academic progress.

Reading Needs

Sixty-six percent of the students enrolled in Adult Reading said that their technical vocabularies were inadequate for an understanding of the subjects they were studying in the university. Forty-eight percent reported that they did not know how to improve their spelling and how to add words to their vocabulary nor did they know how to interpret the grammatical construction of words in a sentence. Sixty-five percent said they could not master the contents of a chapter without reading it several times, and 73 percent reported that they had difficulty in interpreting a short poem. Fifty-four percent said they were unable to read effectively in order to solve a problem in mathematics, chemistry, and physics. Seventy-five percent explained that they were unable to evaluate the organization and relevancy of facts, data, and information found in their reading. The students completing this informal inventory have reported a wide range of reading disabilities. Some of the more significant of these, however, have been pointed out.

Some Implications for Teachers

Teachers of reading at the college level are concerned with the individual student and his instructional and therapeutic needs. An analysis of data provided by the informal reading inventory, test data, interviews, and academic records suggests that inadequate experiential background and mental content are factors detrimental to the acquisition of skills in the language arts, especially reading and listening. In some content areas, such as literature, science and the social studies, there is limited experiential background for the development of concepts essential to an understanding of what is being expressed in lectures and textbooks. This situation is made more acute by the numbers of students with inadequate skills in the language arts who, sponsored by governmental agencies and foundations, are entering our colleges and universities. These young people are intelligent, and most are willing to put forth and sustain effort. They lack, however, the ability to identify, interpret, and evaluate the concepts expressed in textbooks and reference materials, and many do not know how to apply what they read in the solution of their own problems.

Data resulting from the inventory and from conferences with students show the need for remediation of certain physical and emotional conditions. Abnormalities of vision, for example, and marked feelings of inadequacy require treatment. Inability to concentrate, reported by the majority of all college students, has both a physical and a psychological basis. Counseling and, in some instances, psychiatric treatment are essential in dealing with this problem. As indicated, many students seeking to improve their reading skills have marked feelings of inadequacy and insecurity which retard not only their progress in learning to read more effectively but their academic and social attainments as well. In the opinion of some observers, this feeling of insecurity is related to student frustration and unrest on our campuses.

Survey tests of reading administered to students enrolled in Adult Reading classes show a marked range of achievement. It is not unusual, in fact, to have students in the class scoring on a reading test at the 90th percentile or better who are having difficulty in reading a chapter effectively and well. On the other hand, 35 percent of one college class made scores on a reading test at the 20th percentile and below. It is obvious to the experienced teacher that a wide range of reading skills within a class causes numerous instructional problems which will demand immediate attention. The selection of adequate materials and the effective choice of teaching methods are but two of the many issues that must be resolved.

The modification of entrance requirements and the enrollment of students not previously accepted as regular students in the university suggest that more and more young men and women will be advised to enroll in classes designed to improve their basic reading skills. This fact plus the granting of college credit for these courses necessitate careful evaluation of achievement and the personalization of instruction. This individualization of educational techniques may necessitate team teaching, flexible grouping, and well planned tutoring and counseling procedures. This may require marked changes in the educational philosophy of the university as well as teaching methods. For example, if entrance requirements are to be modified, new criteria must be set up for the evaluation of classroom achievement. The use of "marks" and grades may be set aside and evaluation of achievement may be expressed in terms of skills actually demonstrated by the students.

If the needs of students which they themselves have identified are to be met, the preparation of college teachers must be modified. It is obvious that instruction must be focused upon the individual needs of the student rather than upon the subject matter available in the field. As early as 1959 Eller[3] called attention to trends in this direction. New values must be determined, and new approaches must be utilized. Instead of broadcasting information, the new teacher at the college level, must direct his attention upon the individual and meet his needs as the student attempts to achieve his goals.

Summary

In college classes designed to improve basic reading skills, a widening range of reading needs is apparent. This is brought about in part by changes in admission requirements and by modifications in educational philosophy. Consequently, the teacher must make use of both old and new devices to personalize instruction. He must do more than teach reading. Instead he must teach students **to read** so that they can achieve their objectives.

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INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH TO THE DIAGNOSIS OF SEVERE READING DISABILITY

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Introduction

In a number of previous papers[1] I have discussed the importance of establishing a conceptual framework upon which to base the diagnosis of the multi-faceted aspects of severe reading disability. I have emphasized repeatedly that a single unitary approach to the evaluation of reading disorders is highly fallible. Rather, one must always begin with the axiom that there is no single cause for reading disability. Reading problems are caused and **sustained** by any number of factors, all of which may be highly interrelated. Furthermore, in any comprehensive evaluation, one must view the youngster experiencing reading difficulty as a physical organism functioning in a social environment in a psychological manner. The corrolary to this is that in every child there exists a unique interraction of both functional and organic factors.

The basic hypothesis stated above leads inevitably to the conclusion that a multi-disciplinary approach to the diagnosis of severe reading disability constitutes the optimal way of understanding and treating this complicated problem. Unfortunately an insufficient number of educators have taken advantage of the vast knowledge that has been contributed by various professional disciplines. All too often, there has been a tendency to look with skepticism upon those persons who have attempted to be innovative and imaginative in their approach to children's reading disorders. There have been cries that the so called "new approaches" are actually radical attempts to tear down everything that has been built up carefully over the years by the more conservative educators. On the other side of the fence, the iconoclasts have, with unleashed fervor, often hopelessly misdirected, attacked any position which is not new. To the latter zealots, anything which is novel is automatically valid.

Some have claimed that it is highly questionable for those individuals outside of the reading field **per se** to be concerned with the factors involved in reading disability. They attack the "outsiders" with the statement that these people do not know about teaching anything, let alone teaching reading.[2] What an empty argument this is. If Freud, trained as a physiologist and neurologist, had not begun *to explore the depths of man's personality, how little we would know* today of the many factors which shape and influence our emotions. If Benjamin Franklin had confined himself to his first vocation of printing, would he have invented the stove, musical instruments, and told us about the mysteries of lightening? And, if Phyllis Blanchard, a psychologist by training, had not become interested in reading disabilities, would we know as much about those specific youngsters who experience severe reading failure as the result of the inexorable interference of unconscious conflicts?

We must begin "to accept strawberries in January." We must stop looking at these issues through our own windows of specialization. We must let down our defenses and feel free to accept any help in solving the dilemma of bright, alert youngsters who experience severe disability in reading and its concomitant pressures. There have been strides in medicine, psychology, neurology, psychiatry, endocrinology, and so on, which have contributed greatly to the knowledge of learning, thinking, and behavior. Reading specialists cannot ignore what has been assiduously acquired, but instead must develop the capacity and the wisdom to use this knowledge in a manner which is most beneficial to the child. Let us not be afraid to try. We, too, should have the "freedom to fail."

The Interdisciplinary Approach

The major purposes of any diagnostic evaluation are to determine the existence and severity of the reading disability, the classification of the reading disability, specific strengths and weaknesses evidenced, and the therapeutic steps indicated to ameliorate the condition. A truly interdisciplinary team can enhance the efforts of the teacher in manifold ways. In an optimal situation, the reading teacher is more than what the label teacher implies. Particularly the teacher of a child with severe reading disability must essentially become a reading therapist. The reading therapist educates the child in a psychological environment that is most conducive to the development of the maximum potentialities inherent in the child. In order to do this, the reading therapist can benefit from as much information about the child as is possible. A major function of the interdisciplinary team is to provide this information.

on the family roles, the acculturation factors, specific interpersonal

Social Worker

The social worker's primary responsibility on the diagnostic team is to obtain an extensive history related to the child's reading disorder. In a series of interviews, information is acquired which provides the contextual setting for the youngster's problems as they are now manifested. Such vital areas are explored as the pre-, peri-, and post-natal birth record. Details of all childhood illnesses are obtained, including the age of the child at the time of illness, symptoms, severity, course, and care. The maturational and developmental history is investigated thoroughly: this includes details concerning motor, language, adaptive, and personal-social development.

The entire school record is examined carefully: the child's social and emotional adjustment to his fellow students and to his teacher is reviewed with as much care as his academic performance in each grade. Family relationships are assessed including detailed information family dynamics, and the manner in which each parent perceives the child and his problem. Genetically, the child's social and emotional adjustment is explored with questions related to his feeding habits, sleeping habits, nervous symptoms, early interpersonal relationships, first experiences in school, etc.

Psychiatrist

The psychiatrist, through careful observation of the child, in a number of sessions, makes an evaluation of the child's current adjustment to his environment. Specifically, the psychiatrist is concerned with the child's ego strength: that is, with the child's ability to see things as other people see them, his capacity to relate to other persons, and his effectiveness in dealing with his ideas and feelings in an adaptive manner. The psychiatrist attempts to learn how the child copes with disturbing emotions. He attempts to discern the maneuvers the child employs to bring about desired reactions from others: he also studies the particular defense mechanisms that the child utilizes which
level of the child and looks for the presence of neurotic or psychoso-
may facilitate or impede educational progress. He assesses the anxiety
matic symptoms.

The psychiatrist gives much of his attention to the child's perception of important people in his environment. He is concerned with the child's attitude towards his parents, toward other authority figures including teachers, toward his own peers. The perception of the child may not necessarily coincide with reality. The child can see the teacher as frightening because of displacement. In essence, the psychiatrist attempts to acquire a clear cut picture of the important factors that would either be etiological or sustaining in the reading disability.

Psychologist

The psychologist on the interdisciplinary team plays a very important role in the evaluation of the child's thinking processes. A careful study of the child's intellectual functioning is made, with the emphasis again on determining the important influences on the child's learning ability. The psychologist must determine if there is any significant discrepancy between the child's functioning intelligence level and his potential capacity. Through a careful quantitative and qualitative analysis of inter-and intra-test variability, as well as the verbalizations of the child, the psychologist searches for any significant interference to the thinking processes. Since all effective learning involves the ability to engage in random, passive attending, as well as the ability to focus one's attention—that is, to concentrate, the relationship between these two factors is studied extensively.

Perceptual and conceptual skills are investigated. Deficiencies in these areas may have a direct influence upon reading ability, but more likely influence the child's general learning efficiency. Responses are judged as to the breadth and quality of conceptual thinking. Inadequately, or loosely defined concepts must be evaluated to determine if they represent simply an educational deficiency or are symptomatic of a more serious disorder. For example, an inability to engage in analytic-synthetic thinking might be the result of some underlying organic involvement or might just as well derive from the child's tremendous anxiety and his basic need to keep things hidden from himself.

In addition to the formal evaluation of the thinking processes, the psychological assessment will usually include projective testing. The child, in responding to relatively unstructured materials will project his own ideas and feelings, his conflicts and anxieties on these stimuli and thereby furnish a kind of x-ray of the personality. By carefully interpreting the results of projective tests, the psychologist may gain very important clues as to the child's general effectiveness in a learning situation. More specifically, he will be able to assess the child's ability to organize and synthesize life experience into meaningful, goal-directed patterns. He will explore the child's ability to differentiate between what is constructively aggressive and what is destructively aggressive. If this ability is lacking, for example, then the child will not be able to be assertive in the learning situation and will not be able to compete. The psychologist will also be able to evaluate the child's attitudes toward dependency, his feelings about anger and rage, his need to inflict punishment upon himself, his level of aspiration, his motivation, his self-concept. In essence, the evaluation should go a long way in determining whether there is truly a psychogenic etiology to the reading disability or if symptoms of emotional maladjustment result from continued frustration and failure in school.

Pediatric Neurologist

The pediatric neurologist is concerned with the evaluation of the integrity of the nervous system and with detection of organic involvement. Observation of gait, evaluation of coordination, the study of sensory processes as well as visual-spatial motor activities, etc. constitute the major part of this examination. The emphasis, nevertheless, is not on organic factors, **per se.** Unquestionably, there are many children who experience soft-signs and, for that matter, who definitely have some neurologic deficiencies, who have no difficulty whatsoever in learning to read. What we are concerned with here is, as always, the ego functioning. Specifically, the neurologist is interested in determining if any deficiencies in perception, concept-formation, motility, coordination, and language development interfere with the child's ability to interact with his environment in an adaptive manner.

Pediatrician

The pediatric examination gives special attention to the level of nutrition, evidence of infections, and general physical condition. The child who is chronically malnourished and the child who is chronically ill can hardly be expected to perform adequately in school. A visual screening is done not only to determine if there is any loss of visual acuity, but more importantly to measure the coordinative functioning of both eyes. A child who is experiencing a break-down in his accommodative-convergence relationship may very well withdraw from those activities which have produced the stress—namely, near-point activities such as reading. Auditory screenings are also accomplished with emphasis on the evaluation of possible perceptual handicaps in discriminating speech sounds and defective intersensory integration, as in the task of converting auditory to visual signals.

Diagnostic Teacher

Last, the diagnostic teacher secures detailed information about the child's reading levels as well as his specific strengths and weaknesses in reading. For the most part, informal measures of achievement are utilized. Since reading essentially is a process of association, the child's associative learning ability is studied extensively, with attention being focused on the pattern of the associative learnings skills. For example, we have found that children with specific reading disability often do better on tests involving visual-auditory associative learning ability as compared to their ability to make strictly visual-visual associations. They also perform more adequately on tests of association when they must deal with concrete stimuli as compared to abstract or word-like stimuli.

The educator also studies the patterning of the child's attention span capacities. Certain relationships have been established which help us to differentiate the child who is experiencing specific reading disability from the child who has difficulty in concentrating based upon some psychogenic etiology. It is also important to determine whether there is impairment of the functioning of any of the sensory modalities. Again, it must be emphasized that the focus of the educational evaluation is always upon its practical value to the reading teacher. Diagnoses and labels **per se** have no real significance; what the reading therapist requires is specific suggestions as to the techniques which may be employed to overcome weaknesses in any area.

Conference with Parents

When all the members of the team have accomplished their goals, when we have obtained the history, the global and specific picture of intellectual functioning, the physical and neurological status, the psychiatric and psychological data, and the educational assessment, we are in a much better position to speak with the child's parents intelligently. We are able to give them a reasonably complete picture of the child's problems. We can be more open with the parents and have more empathy with them. We are able to show them more clearly that problems they are encountering in the home are perhaps very much related to problems in the classroom. In some cases, it may be an intrapsychic problem which is preventing the child from producing or being successful. Sometimes we are able to draw an analogy between the struggle of the teacher in school and the problems that the parents are having with the child at home. It often helps greatly to bring the parents in as responsible team members themselves. When parents begin to feel that at least they are doing somthing constructive for their child, and not engaging in a vicious power struggle, this goes a long way to alleviate their own guilt, self recrimination, and need to project their problems upon the school.

Conclusion

I have pointed out what a truly interdisciplinary approach can do in the diagnosis of reading disability. The team, nevertheless, must be more than a team in name only. It must constitute a highly integrated organized group of competent and interested persons who are anxious to do more than study the problem "through their own window of specialization." At all times there must be developed and fostered the attitude of aspiration, evaluation, and reciprocation, and mutual sharing of ideas rather than the defensive, immature need to maintain one's own position as a means of enhancing his professional image and bolstering concept of self. There must be open lines of communication maintained among all members of the team. Above all, the information must be provided to the teacher in such a way that she can use it optimally.

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CHALLENGES IN TUTORING THE EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED

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Individual tutoring of emotionally disturbed children for several years— from the stages of overt resistance to tentative acceptance of learning—is an excellent learning experience for any tutor. The boys I am discussing have average or better IQ, are of upper elementary or junior high school age, and were in treatment at the Newton-Baker Project,[1] a guidance clinic established in a public school setting to work with multiproblem families where there were antisocial acting out children. Most of the boys were able to be contained in the public schools—with various suspensions, absences, and escape valves provided by some schools. All were involved in some aspects of a clinic program which offered individual therapy, tutoring, group activity program, a lounge program for after school hours, and social work for one or both parents, who were often so resistant the case workers had to go to the homes to maintain any contact.

A look at some of the criteria for classifying these boys as disturbed and antisocial helps to explain more fully the challenges they presented. School records and discussions with parents indicated that these boys usually had a persistent pattern of antisocial behavior from early childhood, were generally hyperactive, aggressive, difficult to manage, poor or nonlearners with short attention spans, did not get along with peers, were defiant toward authority, were truant, lied, stole, set fires, ran away from home as early as ages 3 and 4, and frequently were bed wetters until early adolescence or later. Not only their behavior was unacceptable, but also their attitudes and feelings toward others. They appeared lacking in any concern for the welfare or interests of others; they seemed to have severely limited emotional, intellectual and work capacities, and had special difficulty in trusting and being dependent on others. Their relationships were superficial, being either openly mistrustful, defiant and aggressive, or else indiscriminately friendly and affectionate, agreeing to do what was requested of them but seldom carrying through, for they were often excellent manipulators.

However, in order to plan any sort of therapeutic program for them, it was important to understand some of the reasons for this behavior, and our diagnostic studies suggested that their self centeredness was really a defense against their underlying feelings of emptiness; that they longed for a warm enduring interest in themselves as persons, but they also feared it for they had learned, through years of continual emotional deprivation, that adults are not to be trusted for they may hurt, reject, or desert you. The self image of these boys was a negative one, and they seemed to have to hold on to this—to be this—or they were nothing. For this reason they feared acceptance and provoked rejection to continually prove that they were the bad ones. Their constant demands for immediate gratification of their needs, and their impulsive actions made for them focus on the present and the concrete, and this had to be considered in our attempts to teach them. Much of their negative self defeating behavior had developed from gross inconsistency in parental handling, in deficiencies in early mother-child relationships, and in some cases in overtly cruel exploitive, seductive, and abusive treatment of child by parent or parent substitutes.[2]

When an educator is faced with problems of poor impulse control, short attention span, negative self image, distrust of adults, hyperactivity, and often poor reality testing, in addition to resistance to books and reading and especially to teachers, where does he start? It was obvious that any educational program would have to be adapted to the needs of these boys, so our first challenge was, "Could we get them to come, and could we get them to stay?" In other words, could we get them to accept us, as well as, could we learn to accept them.

Even the physical setting is important when one strives toward the objective of improving relationships with antisocial boys. In order to make the tutoring environment different from the one usually associated with school learning, we used tables instead of desks and began with games, arts and crafts, nature materials, and various audio-visual aids. The tutoring room had to be one in which there was understanding and acceptance, yet one where needed limits were imposed to give security from lack of impulse control.

Not only the setting, but also the tutor had to be individualized for these boys who usually responded negatively or fearfully to all adults in authority positions. The tutor had to gradually build an image of an understanding dependable person who had a sincere belief in the boy's ability to improve, who would give constant attention to his concerns and worries and empathize with feelings of fear, love and hate, even when they were expressed indirectly and covered with defenses. He had to be constantly able to meet needs without appearing to be controlling or demanding of achievement. Concrete giving seemed to help demonstrate that the learning atmosphere could be a secure and pleasurable one. This giving could be food; or it could be reading, games, or trips.

This preachievement phase was a "testing out" time for both child and tutor. The child soon determined which activities he could not accept. The tutor began to understand the child's manner of communication, how active or passive the session might be, how to adapt his program to the child's style of learning, and how close a relationship would be desirable.

During this time when primary concern was with developing a relationship, only minimal contact with usual academic material was possible, even as little as ten minutes per session for some boys. Our second challenge then, was to find learning tasks in which the boys could become involved, not only could we get them to come and stay, but could we get them to look and listen and really become involved in some activity of their own choice. For this reason in our diagnosis we looked not only for problem areas, but for "conflict-free"[3] areas. If the child was not able to deal with the present, we might try the past, or topics related to space and distance.

As we investigated the various reasons these boys were so resistant to learning we found that academic tasks to some appeared to be passive, and they were quite fearful of passivity. For others learning was viewed as an aggressive act, and they were fearful of this kind of aggression.[4]

But we knew that our boys often viewed the world as a hostile rejecting place. Tutors had to plan their strategies so that they were not repeating the same responses others had made to this angry rejecting exterior that was often presented. For these reasons tutors usually began any academic study in areas of competency rather than where lack of skill was most apparent—so that the learning might be related to specific skills, in sports, science, or fixing cars and reading would be related to these.

If failure were continually devastating to the boy, the tutor even chose games in which he would have a majority of successes. Eventually when loss in competition was more tolerable and he didn't have to cheat to win or leave the room in anger if he lost, more games of chance could be used.

For boys whose fantasies constantly interfered with tutoring it was useful at times to relate the materials of the lesson to his inner needs, even to start with his fantasies and use them in some way, though this was always checked out with the therapist first. One boy made up a play about monsters and frightening people and even created a card file of all the horror movies he had seen and the actors who had played the parts.

To find tasks that would be accepted took ingenuity and a spirit of experimentation by the tutor, for usual books, workbooks, stories, and especially anything that looked like drill, was quickly rejected; few boys would ever accept help with homework, for they would not have anyone see them outside school carrying a book. So early reading might be just a few lines below a picture in **Life Magazine**, or **Sports Illustrated**, or some hot rod magazine. When books were more acceptable, animal, western, and adventure stories were sometimes acceptable, especially if tutor did much of the early reading. When boys insisted they had no interests, the tutor might bring in articles from the newspaper, comic strips, nature stories, or the like.

The third challenge was the challenge to be flexible. To maintain involvement in learning, it was essential to start where the boy was, and constantly adapt to his learning style. Each tutor learned to estimate fairly accurately a boy's frustration tolerance for a task and then changed tasks or altered the situation to prevent loss of control or failure. He built up a repertoire of areas where the child could immediately gain success or pleasure, such as games he liked to play or craft activities, eating, talking, or walking. Tutors often worked out a compromise work-play schedule with the child, so that less desirable activities were accepted for a period of time, then followed by more pleasurable activities. Gradually periods of work increased as the boy's tolerance for learning increased. Responses to tutoring often were related to what had happened at home that morning, or on the way to tutoring, or in some class at school, and the tutor could tell by the way the boy came pounding up the steps and flying into the room that the beginning part of the session had better be used to work off some anger or frustration before any academic work was presented. The tutor had to be constantly ready to change his "techniques" as the occasion demanded, to listen and discuss suggestions when problems were obvious, to use firm but kindly limiting of behavior and point out reality when control was lacking, and to "teach" when there was opportunity for it. It was essential to be able to give freely of time and emotional energy without expecting rewards in the form of learning for a long time.

A challenge that isn't always recognized is that of establishing realistic goals. When the school implied that a boy was behaving worse than before he started at the project, when parents complained that he never did his homework, and when he himself brought *in his re*port card with several F's even though he had had tutoring for six months, the tutor again would ask himself, "What are realistic goals for this boy?"

Though each case had to be considered individually, for most disturbed children behavior and social goals should take precedence over academic ones, for it is in these areas that we find many of their handicaps to learning. Thus in behavior areas the tutor hoped for more acceptance of himself and gradual acceptance of others as trustworthy adults, for less frequent loss of control, perhaps less need for motoric expression. Evidence of less blame of others for problems of his own making, of more tolerance of mistakes and failures, less acting out and anger expressed in destruction of his own belongings of those of others, were all signs of progress. The tutor also looked for gradual use of verbal release of feelings rather than inappropriate actions, less need to provoke rejection and fewer responses that the boy felt he was stupid, or crazy or bad.

We hoped to see gradual improvement throughout tutoring in these areas, but when some academic work was accepted, the tutor did not immediately expect gains in achievement. Rather he sought evidence of longer attention span for school related tasks, more curiosity and motivation to learn in any area, increased acceptance of a direct teaching rather than incidental learning, movement from more concrete materials of learning to more verbal and abstract approaches in dealing with concepts. He expected improved ability to finish and judge his own work, to recognize his mistakes and correct them. Any gains during tutoring should be assessed in the light of a student's previous academic record.

The family's attitudes and expectations regarding learning were also part of the goals that could be set, for this affected the child's response in various ways. If only mother ever read a book or was interested in school, if father scorned school type skills, preferring physical ones, learning could appear to be feminine, and the boy might resist it for that reason. If the parents considered the boy the problem of the family, or the "slow one" the child frequently had a hard time disavowing this reputation. Or if the parents exerted a great deal of pressure for the child to succeed in school tasks, he could show his resistance by refusing to learn.

Thus it is apparent that neither school grades nor achievement tests are consistently appropriate indicators of progress for many disturbed children. Grades are especially inappropriate for antisocial boys who are intolerant of the restrictions of the school setting, and any real improvement in job performance, or everyday practical judgment, or curiosity will seldom show up in academic areas.

Finally the tutor had to deal with the challenge of recognizing and accepting his own feelings about his interactions with these boys. Some disturbed children responded more readily than antisocial boys to a relationship with an understanding adult and make more obvious gains, for such a relationship meets many of their basic needs. But aggressive acting out boys usually continue to test all limits for a time, and their responses are erratic and unpredictable. Just when the sessions appear to be going well, they may suddenly begin to miss them and may firmly state that they are not coming back. Although the tutor may rationalize that this is to be expected, his own feelings of frustration or anger or disappointment are often sensed by the child, even though the tutor feels that he has continued to be warm and accepting. At times, it may be more appropriate to express the frustration.

Tutors who have been teachers also find that they do have some need to see evidence of school achievement, often long before the child has such a need. Tests which show little improvement or even regression are not reassuring to the tutor's sense of adequacy. But if he responds with feelings of despair and pessimism, the child often notes this and responds in the same way or withdraws for a time, for these children are unusually sensitive to adult's feelings. What is needed seems to be what Ruth Newman[illegible] has called, "long term optimism without personal demand."

But there are some gratifications, even though they may not appear for a time. The child's sudden acceptance and enjoyment of a learning situation, or unusual concentration on a difficult task that you expected to last only a few minutes, or even an unexpected compliment, when you have had to admit to a foolish error, "I wish my other teachers were like you!"

Hirschberg[6] has emphasized that an educational experience has great ego-building potentiality, for it is oriented to reality; it offers opportunities for developing skill and mastery which enable the child to construct a more adequate self image and develop self esteem; a tutor who has insight into his own needs as well as those of the child can offer the child needed security, as well as help him gain greater capacity to adapt to life stress. This helps to confirm hopes and expectations that a good tutoring experience can play a major role in the total treatment of a disturbed child.

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VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT THROUGH TV FOR HIGH SCHOOL, COLLEGE AND ADULT STUDENTS

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Within the last decade vocabulary has burgeoned into special prominence. The close relationship between vocabulary and academic success has become more obvious. For example, take the significant research by Holmes and Singer[1] into those factors contributing most to reading speed and power; out of the 54 variables analyzed, **vocabulary in context** and **visual verbal meaning** were discovered to be the most important of all. As further evidence of the growing concern over vocabulary, note the recent extensive study initiated by the National Council of Teachers of English.[2] Note also the recent appearance of the most complete and ambitious visually-oriented program[3] yet devised for teaching vocabulary. Designed for grades 7 through 13, it uses 19 color films and related exercise materials.

When a growing interest in vocabulary is paralleled by a growing awareness of the promise of educational television, new explorations are certainly in order. Video tape recorders are even now beginning to take their rightful place in the classroom as teaching aids with almost unlimited potential.

Within this setting, it seemed appropriate to start such explorations by devising, taping, and televising a short course for the teaching of vocabulary. In final form the course consists of ten half-hour programs plus a half-hour preview—a total of five and a half hours of TV instruction.

Course Structure

The course is built around "The Fourteen Words That Make All the Difference"[4]—short cuts to over 14,000 words of desk dictionary size or an estimated 100,000 from the big unabridged dictionary. To capitalize as fully as possible on special visualizing techniques, the course is built around five programmed units, five tachistoscopic units,[5] and a visual-kinetic aid for sharpening awareness of word parts.

Since vocabulary development, broadly speaking, is much more than adding new words to one's vocabulary, ten imperatives are pro-posed, to focus attention more sharply on problems of using words with maximum effectiveness. As an integral part of the course there is a combination text and study-guide[6] plus the color-coded word-power cards.[7]

Furthermore, the course was structured around the hypothesis that it is possible to teach much by proper treatment of little—to learn much about prefix and root elements in general through a specially structured study of a select few. For example, one can learn by rote to spell each of the some 4,000 words involving the doubling of a final consonant or, as an alternative, study twenty prototypes in such a way as to accomplish the same end.

Test Instrument

To check the effectiveness of this course, a refined version of an earlier four-part test[8] was developed for pre- and post-testing. This provided an in-depth evaluation for some of the course objectives.

One part of the test checked the students' rote knowledge of prefix and root meanings, a necessary step in any word analysis involving these and like elements. The second part of the test is a reminder that they must be able to identify the prefix or root correctly in a word before they can put their knowledge to use. They may notice such words as **affect, accede,** and never identify the prefix **ad-** in each one, because of the possible variant forms. Or they may look at the word **preconceived** and see only the prefix **pre-** and not the form of **com-** which immediately follows. Obviously it is not enough just to know meanings.

Furthermore, test results indicate that knowledge of prefix and root meanings, as well as ability to identify such elements in words, does not necessarily mean a concomitant ability to apply that knowledge effectively in arriving closer to word meanings. For that reason, the third part of the test measured the ability to apply knowledge of prefix and root meaning and form in arriving at or nearer to word meaning. The fourth and last part of the test is designed to evaluate the ability of the students to move beyond the elements studied to strange or even imaginary elements and to make generalizations about them that would indicate measurably improved ability in dealing with all prefix and root elements.

As a final check even further removed from normal experience with words, an application test over French words was used. Here students must depend almost entirely on knowledge of prefix and root elements. Since French is a Romance language, as Latin, they can appreciate much more clearly how widely applicable their newly-acquired knowledge is. The French words were sufficiently strange that one college student with three years of college French, said there was not a single word she knew from her course work in French.

Course Evaluation

How effective is a five and a half hour TV course on vocabulary? That was the next question to be answered. Results could be obtained from high school or college students, but they would be taking a variety of different courses and be introduced to a variety of technical vocabularies. The results from the TV course might reflect too strongly these other elements. The problem was to get as pure a measure as possible of vocabulary gains.

Research indicates that when a person leaves school and takes a job, his vocabulary tends to change very little from that time on. Because they fell into that category, an attempt was made to interest a group of business men. They would seem to be subject to fewer strong stimulating and diverse currents affecting vocabulary than the average high school or college student. Investors Diversified Services was approached and expressed interest in cooperating in a study designed to evaluate the effectiveness of the word-power course.

Arrangements were made to have the viewing of the eleven-week course done on company time, a half-hour per week, two TV sets being provided in a room suited to the thirty some registrants. Before the series began, each registrant was given a pre-test and twenty-minute orientation to the vocabulary course together with an explanation of the experimental set-up. Each class member was asked to keep his identity unknown, signing by code insead of by name. Each was asked to keep an accurate record 1) of the number of programs viewed, 2) of the pages completed in the **Programmed Vocabulary** text, and 3) of the additional hours spent with the color-coded word-power cards. Twelve weeks later, after the course had been completed, the men were given a post-test over the same four areas plus the French test, identifying themselves by the same code as before. Thirty-one of the thirty-five enrollees took both the pre and post tests. Twenty-eight of the thirty-one provided the requested information.

For the thirty-one who took both the pre- and post-test, raw score gains were as follows: Part I (Memorization)—42.5 or 93.4 per cent improvement, Part II (Identification)—31.3 or 61.5 per cent improvement, Part III (Application)—26.2 or 64.1 per cent improvement, and Part IV (Generalization)—28.0 or 65.7 per cent improvement. Total improvement for the four-part test was 128.0 or 71.4 per cent.

Since most of the class members were college graduates and had an excellent vocabulary to begin with, results of this magnitude were unexpected. Even a ten to twenty per cent increment would have looked good. Twenty of the class members were between 26 and 35 years of age, six between 36 and 45, and five between 46 and 55. With more than a third being 36 or older, the results were most gratifying.

Analysis of variables

Since the course itself is a composite of three elements—1) the actual TV programs, eleven in all, 2) the combination study-guide and textbook, and 3) the word-power cards—an analysis was made to see more clearly the relationship between each variable and the results.

Of the twenty-eight registrants for whom complete data were available, twelve saw ten or eleven of the eleven half-hour programs and sixteen saw nine or fewer. The twelve who saw ten or eleven of the programs showed an average raw-score gain of 164.2, a 99 per cent gain, in the pre and post testing, total on the four tests. The sixteen who saw nine or fewer gained 102.8 raw-score points on the average or 57.7 per cent gain on the total. Apparently the programs themselves were making an observable difference in the amount of progress shown.

All 128 pages of the programmed vocabulary text were to have been completed outside of class during the eleven weeks of the TV course. Exactly half (Group A) completed all or almost all of the text—114 to 128 pages, an average of 126 pages. The other half (Group B) completed from 20 to 101 pages or an average of 48 pages, less than half the number completed by the other half. The following table indicates the resulting differences.

Text Coverage and Average Gains

Tests	Average Gains	
	Group A (14) (114 to 128 pages)	Group B (14) (20 to 101 pages)
Part I	47.9 or 97.4%	37.9 or 87.1%
Part II	40.0 or 77.8%	22.8 or 44.5%

Part III	30.7 or 70.6%	20.7 or 50.4%
Part IV	45.0 or 87.1%	14.2 or 31.6%
Total	163.6 or 89.2%	95.7 or 52.9%

The importance of the programmed text is further emphasized by results from a research project at J. Sterling Morton High School. For a half-hour a week an experimental group used the programmed text. At the end of the year the experimental and control groups were retested. The control group raw score gain was only 3.35, the experimental 14.04, a statistically significant difference.

The word-power cards were not extensively used, 22 of the 28 using them an hour or less during the eleven weeks of the course. Only six used them for two or more hours, one of the six for ten hours—almost an hour a week. The twenty-two who used them an hour or less improved on the total test an average of 113 raw-score points and ranged from the one student who scored lower on the post test by 40 points to one gaining 220 points. The six who used the cards for two or more hours averaged 190 raw-score points gain, with a range of from 90 to 270 points, the later being the student who used the cards for ten hours.

The tremendous proliferation of words in our language is appalling. In 1755, Johnson's dictionary contained only 58,000 entries. By 1828 Webster's dictionary contained 70,000 entries. Today the new unabridged dictionaries contain over 600,000 entries, meaning that "our English vocabulary has increased almost tenfold in a hundred and thirty years."[9] Fortunately for word-users, a large proportion of the new words entering our vocabulary are built with old, familiar prefix, root, and suffix elements. Furthermore, by developing a sharper awareness of certain basic principles, useful generalizations can be made that will help the student deal more effectively with new words as well as with the old.

Judging from the data collected on Investor's Diversified Service personnel, even a short course such as this one has excellent potential. It should provide a useful supplement to regular English courses as well as to reading improvement courses at the high school, college, or adult levels.

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DEMONSTRATION: TEACHING COMPREHENSION TO JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

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The term "demonstration" in the title has this sense: not a formal research paper but a presentation of a fairly specific method of procedure. There was no intention of bringing in a group of students and, in front of an audience, instructing them. I once saw something similar to this done, and, as Dr. Johnson remarked, "It was not that it was poorly done, but the marvel that it was done at all." I wish, also, to emphasize the specific. I have noticed over the years that not too many speakers care to descend to specifics. I have hesitated in the past myself; I believe this comes from fear that I would be found out using outmoded or even condemned methods. I am too old now to be so affected, so I intend to be specific.

What I have to say comes from my experience in teaching students in college who need to have their reading improved so that they can meet their academic responsibilities. In the past I have dealt considerably with secondary students, but now I am solely concerned with those attending a suburban junior college in a large metropolitan area. However, few are disadvantaged economically and none racially.

Reading improvement instruction takes a variety of forms. Some instructors work with individuals and some with groups. Of the latter,

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some conduct a college reading course almost solely by lecture. Possibly they do not think they are doing so because they devote time to discussion which is generally recitation and because they have visiting speakers. Other instructors take an opposite view and have the students spend their time in the reading room practicing various reading skills with specially constructed materials either from one source or a variety of sources. I have always favored the latter position: more emphasis on practice and from a variety of sources. Of course, we know that real improvement comes only outside of the reading room where the student applies what he learns in what we might call the natural environment.

The theory of reading I have used is based on recognition of the main idea. Reading comprehension is a cognitive or information-processing system. Basically it is an ongoing additive process stimulated by a lineally produced string of symbols. The reader adds these into words, phrases, and clause-sentence meanings. These, in turn, are combined and sometimes recombined and a conclusion drawn as to first the subject of the longer communication and then the main idea—the subject plus what is said particularly about the subject. Word recognition, a certain speed, the relationship of recognized details are implied in this process.

Skills and Abilities

From the above theory of reading process the following skills and abilities have been evolved: 1) left-right ongoing pace with few regressions, 2) recognizing and analyzing unknown words, 3) recognizing details and their relationships, 4) finding the subject and then the main idea, 5) skimming for main points, and 6) scanning to find particular answers to specific questions.

Teaching Procedures

Help in improving reading is offered to the students at Morton College in groups of about 15 students; usually there are six such groups each semester. I should not say "offered" for entering freshmen who fall below the 25th percentile on the verbal section of the ACT Test are placed in one of the reading groups. However, the course is open to any student who wishes to improve his reading so that most groups will have some volunteer students who will be above average readers and who are often sophomores. Also, a number of students repeat the course if they ask to do so.

Basic to our procedures is the multi-material approach, using as extensively as possible materials which are multi-level. This allows me to be fairly uniform in my procedures with different levels of abilities. Since the emphasis in teaching is on comprehension, I use for initial diagnosis tests which give information on comprehension ability: the Davis Reading Test, giving scores on comprehension and rate of comprehension, and the Reading for Understanding Placement Test, giving information on those comprehension skills which appear to be most closely associated with getting the main idea. I also use the California Phonics Test, which gives me information for use with the pooer readers. From these tests I have a good idea where each student can best begin with the least expectation of frustration.

The groups meet twice a week for approximately 16 weeks, not much time for all of the improvement we might hope for. Short as it is, however, I usually find time for the seven teaching units I have organized. These units are not as rigidly organized, though, as my description may seem to indicate, for I can find opportunity for individual help all along the way.

The materials used for the beginning unit are the Controlled Reader with the film-strips and workbooks which accompany this projector. This instrument moves a projected reading selection, a line at a time at a pre-set rate; each line is exposed part at a time from left to right.

At the beginning of the class I lecture the students on the nature of the reading process supplementing the lecture with dittoed material and with the illustrations of eye-movement films in the Controlled Reader workbook. Then I present the first unit in the lowest level workbook and film; I set the projector at its lowest rate, intending to emphasize the left to right movement rather than any speed.

The Controlled Reader workbooks also contain material for teaching skimming and contextual analysis, two more of the skills and abilities to be taught. A certain number of the units have their reading selections especially marked for skimming and each unit has a study section featuring words taken from the reading selection and used in sentences or paragraphs with a full enough context to facilitate working out the meaning.

By using these described materials, I manage to introduce and provide practice for several of the skills and abilities I wish to teach. It might be thought a disadvantage to have these skills and abilities grouped so closely together at the beginning, but actually I believe it is an advantage. I can thus show the interrelationships in this reading process: skimming is an on-going activity emphasizing the location of main ideas at a fair rate. I take the opportunity to discuss the nature of the general organization of expository writing with its usual emphasis on presenting general statements of main points at the beginning and end of a reading selection and at the beginnings of paragraphs. Contextual analysis also emphasizes a combining and organizing of ideas in a search for a word meaning. Aside from this work, the class receives no vocabulary building practice as such although students are encouraged to work on learning words on their own.

The very poor readers, and there are always some, do not work on these Conrtolled Reader materials. Instead they work on phonetic analysis with materials I have collected and with exercises selected from the SRA Reading Laboratories. However, they do receive the initial presentation.

I follow up the Controlled Reader exercises with skimming exercises in various workbooks. The students are asked to emphasize those sections of the article likely to maintain main idea statements, although I have not worked out a method whereby I can be sure they do so.

The work with the Controlled Reader and the supplementary exercises take up every other period, or one period a week, for the first half of the course. It is continued after that, but not so regularly. In the other period in the week I begin with exercises on getting the main idea, using graded workbooks.

These exercises are supplemented by work with the SRA **Reading for Understanding** cards which emphasize the ability to draw a conclusion about the main idea of a paragraph. This material is also graded so that all students can work at their own levels. Later the better readers use the collection of materials in the **Advanced Reading Skills** series published by SRA, which offers practice in all of the above skills but which has more difficult selections and places a much heavier stress on rate.

As soon as the students have been introduced to and practiced the skills and abilities emphasized, I have them work on what might be called a special unit, reading and mastering a textbook chapter using a modified SQ3R.

In class the students practice this system on textbook excerpts in Christ's **Study Reading College Textbooks.** Finally, the students are assigned to try the system in one of their classes.

In the final part of the class the students practice scanning or reading to answer specific questions. For this practice they use the SRA Rate Builders. These are, again, graded materials so that the student can begin at his own level. The student skims the short reading selection and then goes to the questions, using the key words in the question to locate its answer in the text. Later they shift to longer reading selections but still with the emphasis on answering questions.

More intensive work on contextual analysis finishes the course. The SRA Power Builders have good exercises on contextual analysis, using longer reading selections. At this time the students also work out the comprehension exercise which is a part of each Power Builder unit. The good readers practice with reading pacers, using the long reading selections provided with the **Advanced Reading Skills** materials.

Evaluation is made by administering follow-up forms of the **Davis Reading Test** and the **Reading for Understanding** Placement Test. The results have shown satisfactory improvement for the majority of students. Many students have said they have benefited from the course, and a number every semester ask to repeat it.

What I have tried to do in the reading improvement groups is provide time for practice for a fairly limited number of skills and abilities with enough informative talks so that the students could understand these skills and abilities and their place in the reading process. I have tried to provide specific materials for practice by selecting from a variety of materials those parts which seemed best suited to that purpose.

In all my years of teaching I have tried to understand and have a reason for what I have decided to teach. I will not be so bold as to claim that I have succeeded. But I have tried.

PREPARATION OF READING TEACHERS FOR JUNIOR COLLEGES

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One of the first things to be considered in discussing preparation of a special kind of teacher for the two-year college is the institution itself. What is there about the two-year college that makes it different from the secondary school? From the four-year colleges and universities? We hear voices often and forcefully expressing the idea that the junior college is a unique institution, that comparisons with secondary schools or four-year colleges are not necessarily appropriate. What we sometimes forget is that the two-year colleges occasionally differ from each other about as much as they differ from the other types, with regard to admissions practices, to goals and purposes, to programs offered, and to patterns of organization.

The widest differences would probably be found between the private and the public. It would seem that the private two-year colleges can be characterized as being more traditional in their approach, usually concentrating on liberal arts and transfer programs. They usually have some kind of academic admissions requirements. The public two-year colleges, popularly called community colleges, now outnumber the private by more than two to one, and new ones are being established at the rate of better than one a week.

There are certainly many areas of common concern in the public and private two-year colleges; however, because of the rapid increase in the number of public institutions, the increase in their student populations, and the number of new teachers that they are requiring, it would be well to take a look at what they are trying to do and the students to whom they are trying to do it.

In the public two-year colleges throughout the United States the prevailing philosophy accepts the following ideas: (1) the open-door policy. Usually this means that all are admitted who are high school graduates or who are 18 years of age or older, (2) provision for curricula offerings sufficient in number and broad enough in scope to assure each student some degree of success in his college experience, (3) provision for a guidance program of the kind to assure that each student will find the program best suited to his own interests, needs, and abilities, (4) provision for excellent teaching in all areas for all students, (5) realistic standards for student achievement which are consonant with the goals which he has set for himself. To achieve the success mentioned above, individual effort is required. As one reading teacher in a community college has put it, he cannot expect to get on a conveyor belt at one end of a program and glide gracefully through to the other end where a diploma or certificate awaits him.

The philosophy upon which the community college is based has led to the wide acceptance of a set of goals and purposes for this particular institution which can be stated as follows: (1) post-secondary vocational and technical education, (2) general education for all students (3) college parallel or transfer, (4) counseling and guidance, (5) continuing education, and (6) community services.[1]

Various studies have established that if age or graduation from high school or both are used as criteria for admission to the "open-door college," ability as measured by standardized tests is likely to range from the highest to lowest on national norms, with transfer students usually scoring higher than those in vocational programs.[2] Where the four-year institutions typically employ standardized tests and high school grades to select students of higher academic potential, the community colleges enroll students who more closely represent a cross-section of the population in measured ability.[3] Therefore, when national college test norms are used 45 percent of the students in an open-door community college can be expected to fall within the lower one-fourth of the total population, and approximately one-fifth of the community college students will be among the lowest one-tenth of the national group.[4] The nationwide study by Dorothy Knoell and Leland Medsker pointed out that a feeling of not being prepared to do college work was a factor of importance in the decision of about one-third of the transfer students to attend a junior rather than a four-year college.[5] With regard to academic ability, the Project Talent studies, involving around 400,000 students, a five percent national sample found that "On **every one** of 14 measures of ability—ranging from reading comprehension, mathematics ability, and biology to vocabulary information, creativity, and abstract reasoning—the junior college group fell between four-year, and non-college groups. They appeared somewhat more academically able than students who did not go to college but distinctly less able than the four-year college group."[6] In the open-door colleges we are accustomed to finding the widest possible range of reading ability and interest. In my own experience in teaching in a junior college, I have observed a number of students in college transfer programs whose reading ability was rated at less than sixth grade level and I have seen those who were rated well into the college level; whose interest and enthusiasm ranged from those who had never read even one book to one young man who, after seeing Camelot, set out to read everything ever written about King Arthur. I think he succeeded, at least from Malory's **Morte D'Arthur** to White's **The Once and Future King.** In addition, many community colleges have assumed the responsibility for adult basic education, which means that some of the college students cannot read at all.

Recognizing the scarcity of reliable information about reading programs in two-year colleges, the Reading Department at Appalachian, headed by Uberto Price, sent a questionnaire to all the two-year colleges listed in the most recent **Junior College Directory** published by the American Association of Junior Colleges. There was no follow-up effort to get a higher response but 546 institutions returned the questionnaires within the two months allowed, up to last week. Some chose not to answer some of the 27 questions included, and there is no way to tell why they answered one and not another. However, I would like to share with you the results of this study, at least as they relate to the preparation of reading teachers for two-year colleges.

Of 365 responses to a question regarding structure, 183 said that reading was taught in separate courses, 160 said it was taught as one of the communications skills in English or related courses, while 22 said reading was offered as part of a special program such as developmental, directed, or guided studies. One hundred and fourteen of 335, not quite one-third, had part of their program designed specifically for the adult population (over 25 years of age). One hundred and eleven, exactly one-third of the 333 answering, said they were involved with reading as a part of basic adult education (defined as eighth grade level and below). By far the largest number of schools, 327, indicated that they had only one person teaching reading in their schools; 76 had two reading teachers and 35 had four; few had more than four. Twenty-eight different test instruments were being used for initial placement of students in the reading programs, the most popular being the ACT and the Nelson-Denny. It is interesting to note that 21 of the respondents admitted to using guess work as a method of selection.

Of special interest to us are the responses to the open-ended question, "What do you think the preparation of teachers of junior college reading should include?" At the head of the list was a practicum or internship experience. In descending order in number of times mentioned were "familiarity with testing devices," "knowledge of how to detect weaknesses," "emphasis on reading improvement in adults," "experience," "linguistics or language skills," and "knowledge of skills in reading."

We should pause here to note that there are many ways to prepare teachers of reading for junior colleges other than in the teacher preparation institutions. Among these are in-service institutes, consortia, and teacher exchange arrangements. Some of these have not only provided much-needed background for teachers of reading, but have stimulated innovations with particular relevance to the community and junior colleges. Nevertheless, it would seem that two-year colleges still look to the four-year colleges and universities to prepare most of the reading teachers they now need and will be needing.

If our programs are going to be reasonably successful, and if they are to operate efficiently in terms of time and money, then we must give some thought to the selection and recruitment of reading teachers. It would be far better for the candidate and for the institution if those showing most promise are identified and encouraged, while those of questionable motivation or doubtful promise are guided into areas where success is more likely.

As I have thought about the preparation of teachers, and especially about the teachers who require a unique competency, such as in reading, I have continued to come back to the same question, "What are the essential differences between the successful teachers and the less successful ones?" The answer always seems to come out about the same. That answer might be phrased this way: What a person is makes more difference than what his background is. The kind of person he is, what he thinks of himself and his role in education, what he thinks students are like, what things he thinks are important in teaching. What he does will depend to a great extent on the kind of person he sees himself to be.

Junior college teachers of reading should be volunteers in that they respond to the challenge of teaching reading with willingness and enthusiasm. The successful teachers are flexible and innovative—willing to explore, experiment, create, to share their ideas with others and to benefit from the ideas that others have to offer. They will make mistakes; they will find some good ideas not feasible in certain situations. But they must be always willing to try.

It should come as no surprise to any of us that the most successful teachers are often the most experienced teachers. The person who has had experience with different age levels, different maturity levels, different ability levels, has already discovered methods, techniques, and materials that work for him. Yet the individual just getting a master's degree is quite often both young and inexperienced. I would therefore put some kind of internship or practicum experience at the top of the list of requirements for reading teachers. If the individual is planning to teach in a two-year college, then the internship should be arranged for the kind of institution in which he is most interested, that is, a public community college or a private junior college.

Teaching of any kind is a highly personal business, and it would seem that teaching of reading is as personal as any. The teacher of reading will need to get personally and deeply involved with the world of ideas and so will his students. I would not like to leave the impression that any student, and especially the educationally disadvantaged student can gain anything substantial from his schooling without his having found in the facts he learns and the skills he acquires a personal meaning for him. Unless the teacher is able to help the student to find this personal meaning at the school, then the student would probably be able to find more true learning at the coffee shop or the local tavern, where ideas are certainly exchanged.

This means that the most important skill that a teacher or would-be teacher can acquire is the unique ability to see things through the other person's eyes. The teacher may be able to establish the most beautiful set of goals and objectives for his teaching ever conceived. But unless he is able to discern something of the student's individual and highly personal goals and include them as a part of his own, then he cannot expect any significant change in behavior.

Up to now I have not mentioned course requirements. The reason for this is that there are probably several different ways in which the desired objectives can be achieved. In helping the teacher to attain and develop the kinds of attitudes that will be of most benefit to him as he serves as a manager of learning activities, we can and should offer courses in psychology. At least one course from the perceptual point of view should be especially useful. His whole program will need to be planned in such a way that over a period of time he comes to see people in ways that researches at the University of Florida indicate distinguish the good teachers from the poor ones. Findings from the several studies can be summarized as follows: The good teacher has an internal rather than an external frame of reference: he is more concerned with people than with things; more concerned with meanings than with facts: more interested in the immediate feelings, beliefs, and understandings of people than with the present or past forces exerted upon them; he perceives others as being able rather than unable, friendly rather than unfriendly, worthy rather than unworthy, internally rather than externally motivated, dependable rather than undependable, and helpful rather than hindering.[7]

As an English teacher, I admit to a bias in favor of teaching reading as one of the communication skills. There is some evidence to indicate that the skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening are part of a whole and should be taught as a unity. As I say this I realize that they will and probably should be separated at times for teaching effectiveness. Of these four, there is little doubt that reading is of critical importance to all students at all levels. It may be the key to success or outright failure of the low-performing community college student. Therefore, I suggest that the best we can do in a preparation program is provide teachers who are themselves good readers, who have acquired the skills necessary for the teaching of reading, who understand the nature of the reading process, who have a knowledge of the methods, techniques and materials available to them, who have considerable skill in writing (he may have to write his own materials appropriate for a given locale), who has a knowledge of the social and economic forces that impinge on the community college and the students, his customers, who understands something of the principles of guidance and his role in the guidance function, who has knowledge of the use and interpretation of tests.

In closing I should like to state again something we have all heard so often, something which we probably all believe. No matter what kind of program we have for two-year college reading teachers, it is only the beginning: the student should accept it as that. After he has developed some skills necessary to the teaching of reading, has absorbed some of the principles related to the process, and has improved his own background in general education, then he is ready to go out and learn to teach in a community or a junior college. He will have to select the methods and materials appropriate to his own personality and to the particular group of students he will be working with. And it will be he who must make the final decision about the degree to which he is succeeding or failing.

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A TIME TO REMEMBER

THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

College Reading Association
March 19, 20, 21, - 1970
Mariott Motor Inn
City Line
Philadelphia, Pa.

WHO ASSESSES READING PROGRESS — TESTS, TEACHERS, OR STUDENTS?

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We hear a great deal these days about student involvement in decisions about curriculum, faculty, rules, evaluation, and so on. And without getting enmeshed in the political and social broil attending current demands, I would like to suggest one small corner of the academic world where I believe students can and should be involved—in the assessment of status and progress in reading, **their** reading. In this context, reading is defined in the broadest sense: the perceptual, cognitive, affective, and practical aspects of reading. The emphasis, however, is on the cognitive and practical, since these are the most easily and most often measured attributes.

As it is, tests and teachers are charged with the greatest share of the assessment job, the gathering of data; and standardized test results, along with teacher reports, also provide the primary base for evaluation . . . the making of judgments about the quality of performance and the meaning of various findings. There are some good reasons for this state of affairs, and there are some distinct disadvantages.

First, a look at tests. We are all familiar with the many articles and speeches which in recent years have inveighed against the uncritical use of standardized tests. Those arguments are as reasonable as they are numerous, and reflect the concern of many teachers and administrators involved in reading programs. The issue, to be sure, is not whether there should be tests or testing; nor is it a matter of which tests to use. The issue is the extent to which tests help us to arrive at judgments and make decisions. And this leads to the question: what do we want to make judgments and decisions **about?**

The tests which most of us use in determining status and progress in reading were developed for predictive, screening, and comparative purposes. The revised Nelson-Denny and the College Board's SAT are good examples of instruments devised to predict academic success. They are also employed in academic screening, just as achievement tests like the California and Stanford are often used in selecting candidates for reading programs. And most all the commonly-administered tests serve the comparative function by providing norms and by yielding scores useful in experimental comparisons across both groups and treatments. These tests generally are reliable and valid, as well as brief and standardized. And they have utility in survey status studies of large groups, in academic prediction, and in experimental comparisons as well as evaluation programs.

But, these tests provide only a quick and partial look into the total domain of skills and uses of reading. If the only yield is a single figure or score, then what have we learned? That a student places at the 43rd percentile or improves from grade level 11.0 to 12.7 tells us virtually nothing about his actual reading performance, even on the test! Unfortunately, such figures cannot be translated into meaningful **behavioral** descriptions. Even more unfortunate, the figures do not represent such descriptions in the first place, since only a few namable reading skills are sampled and the figures refer to comparative standing in terms of items correct.

It appears, then, that the instruments which provide a basis for prediction, screening, and comparison, do not fulfill a fourth and necessary job. They do not answer such questions about performance as: What can students do, and how well? Skimming effectively? How is he doing at studying chapters? Does she know and use context clues? What about drawing conclusions and using reference sources? It is not enough, from the instructional point of view, to say merely that students do or do not "read well."

Take just one illustration. Rate flexibility is a useful goal for all of us, and many students try for various rates (under pressure, anyway). The survey tests tell us nothing about rate flexibility; and even the published instruments focusing on variable rates reveal only that students vary their reading rates as directed or suggested. We are left still wondering about actual rate variation, its extent, under what conditions, with what degree of "voluntary" intent, and related to what purposes. The question was raised earlier, what do we want to make judgments and decisions about in our reading programs? Certainly we need to decide whom to serve, for how long, whether to continue or revise a course, how a program relates to improved grades, and so on. And standardized survey tests are a definite aid at such times. They are not so valuable, however, when it comes to instructional applications after assessment has been completed. Additional information is required about actual day-by-day reading and studying.

Thus teachers, too, are charged with assessing status and progress in reading. They use rating scales. They make planned observations and keep records of reading activity. They determine "general success" with given textbooks and assignments. And of course they often interpret test scores. But in spite of the wisdom and experience which many possess, teachers generally do not have data at hand: they have impressions and recollections. And they are forced at times to make guesses as well as to rely on biases and hope.

In addition, there are two other matters which tend to limit the effectiveness of assessment. First, there is a temptation to respond quickly or definitely to a single factor such as a score, an incident, or an aspect of reading. We have all used a total test score at times as a basis for screening or evaluation decisions. And we have all heard of instances where weak oral reading or slow reading rates, even in college, have been interpreted as clear signs of poor general reading ability. Second, there is a distinct tendency to assess status and needs —and then conduct programs—in our terms, that is, the instructor's or administrator's terms. A quick look through the journals reveals how frequently this unfortunate attitude obtains, particularly in nonvoluntary programs. Here is a sampling of statements from recent sources:

> students are made to realize that . . .
> the teacher has a variety of tests to choose from for diagnosing.
> there are many materials on the market which are interesting.
> the controlled reader device is used with all our subjects . . .
> the major objective of the program should be to . . .

Don't get me wrong. I am speaking here of tendencies and temptations. And while they do exist, they are not characteristic of all instructors or programs, by any means. In fact, in the past few years we have heard about individualized college programs (at Maryland, Cornell, and Minnesota, for example) where students are not necessarily tested at all and where they choose their own instructional packages and schedules. And that certainly puts the program into their terms.

Can we do something similar in required as well as voluntary courses which have stated schedules and programs? Even more, can we accept and use students' perceptions about their reading status? Can we learn from them something important about their goals? This may be the point at which some creative assessment can take place. We can't be sure that students perceive the same goals that schools do; nor that a reading program's objectives include all the goals of our students. But we may be quite confident that students have goals and that we can discover them, cooperatively. Then we may be able to lead them to "better" ones—goals more oriented to the future or to students' needs or to academic and occupational reality.

Students are pretty well trapped in schools and colleges—whether or not they've expressed their own objectives or are aware of the institution's goals for them. Older people, conversely, often simply will not go "to school" or join clubs and groups unless they first know and accept the objectives. We recognize that a person's adopting objectives, and understanding how to attain them, is a major aid in that attainment. And we know that there is even more motivational value if a person participates in goal-setting to begin with.

I have a suspicion that students are in a better position than we realize to spell out realistic objectives in reading and studying. They don't often do it, perhaps, but the capability is there. They also are in a good position to assess their own performance. They do not measure in terms of test results, though; rather, they use other criteria: assignments completed, enjoyment, satisfaction with achievement, interest, the development of efficient procedures—and possibly even grades. From this point of view, we should realize that tests and teachers suffer from a sampling problem that students don't have. That is, students by and large know the demands and sense whether or not they have been fulfilled. Tests, on the other hand, include only a few of the skills and purposes that students are aware of; and teachers very often are not cognizant of the full range of demands placed on students or the skills needed—especially when we consider the requirements of various academic areas.

If we accept the foregoing, then what can we do to capitalize on these notions in our programs and courses? There are several possibilities:

1. We can involve students directly by specifying reasonable objectives with them. This is vital if we are then to assess jointly the achievement of objectives and the level of student satisfaction in their terms. In particular cases, their goals may not fit ours, but does that really

matter? Similarly, performance that is acceptable to students, for their purposes, may be different from what our expectations would suggest.

2. We can set up a grid of Content and Skills as illustrated in the accompanying chart as a discussion base for establishing goals and assessing status and progress. Students would have a fairly complete spectrum of content and skills, but would not necessarily consider every cell in the matrix. In fact, some cells would likely be ignored, such as literature and using graphic aids, or technical material and critical reaction. As it is, there are probably too many entries in both dimensions and telescoping or reorganizing might be desirable. Regardless of what the grid's entries are, however, we should include a number of comprehension applications, not just "comprehension." Students need to have available various handles related to problems, uses, and skills; and by the same token, teachers will be aided in setting up instructional programs. Clearly, this sort of matrix presents much too complex an assessment job for tests or teachers to carry off easily. Students, however, assuming their motivation and effort, would be able to assess their status and progress in the several cells of particular concern to them.

3. We can explore with students the domain of attitudes toward reading. This should be a rewarding venture for all concerned, but even more, it is important to the delineation of objectives. Unfortunate attitudes cloud one's faith in the utility of reading; and they blind one to the beauty of the efficiency skills. We should discuss openly various attitudes and values that affect reading behavior, such as
whether and when to read every word, every sentence
whether to try to remember all that's read
what the author-reader relationship is and who serves whom
the function of motivation, involvement, curiosity
why and when the stating of purposes matters
the importance of several "levels" of language
Discussions on the genesis and implications of strongly held but restricting attitudes will aid in the development of a more positive approach to reading.

4. We can develop criterion tasks for the most common reading skills and uses. Skimming might be an example, or systematic chapter study. Such situational tasks can get at performances which reading tests do not include, and at the same time can be jointly developed with students. An added benefit is that the content as well as the activities of the task can be realistic, relevant to students' courses, and related to their goals.

5. Regardless of the amount or kind of assessment employed, we can provide feedback to students, quickly and in detail. They have every right to know where they stand and how they've progressed, in order to evaluate for themselves and then make meaningful decisions.
6. Finally, we can study our objectives and match them against the instructional program itself and the assessment procedures we employ. This is a crucial step in any case, but especially so when we have solicited students' perceptions and goals. We must be sure that we have built the program around those goals and have assessed status and progress in terms of those goals.

In summary, tests and teachers do not, and cannot be expected to, measure all that we need to know about status and progress. Still, it does not appear necessary to devise entirely new instruments or assessment programs. Rather, we need a change in emphasis from program objectives to students' perceptions and goals for reading and studying. At the very least, they should have the opportunity to benefit from the further motivation that comes from participating in goal-setting. At the most, their needs and goals should be the essential elements in the programs we offer and the means of assessment we provide.

	SKILLS AND USES																				
CONTENT	Thorough Reading	Literal Meaning	Details	Main Import/Idea	Chapter Study	Structure	Skim, Scan	Follow Directions	Summarize	Critical Reaction	Draw Conclusions	Interpretations	Appreciation	Implications	Evaluation	State Purposes	Locate Information	Rates	Graphic Aids	Oral Reading	Vocabulary Power
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
1. Gen'l Descriptive Prose																					
2. Original Sources																					
3. Textbooks in all the Academic Disciplines																					
Science																					
Literature																					
Psychology																					
. . . . . .																					
4. Recreational Reading																					
5. News																					
6. Pressure Prose																					
7. Commentaries, Reviews																					
8. Journals of Opinion																					
9. Technical Material																					
10. Reports and Research																					
11. Documents and Forms																					
12. Miscellany																					

PRINCIPLES OF SELF-REWARD FOR STUDY SKILLS

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University of Minnesota

At the last meeting of this conference, I presented a paper on automated diagnosis.[1] I described a validated system using tape-recorded instructions and the necessary pencil and paper forms with which a college student could diagnose his own reading difficulties and embark on the appropriate individualized treatment. I suggested that the Automated Individualized Diagnosis system was about "as competent as a well-trained but nervous graduate student conducting his first few intake interviews." Of course, a graduate student becomes more efficient and competent as time goes by. However, the fact that we can train an inanimate system to do as good a job as a human counselor should not be dismissed disdainfully. In certain administrative situations, when there are not enough competent human beings around to handle the load, a machine system that mimicks human behavior may be a very useful adjunct. The sensitive mix of technology and human concern may make both more efficient.

In this paper, I want to report on some quasi-automated techniques that have proven effective in increasing student's motivation to improve rate and study skills. I submit and will demonstrate that it is possible to increase the efficiency of a counselor manyfold by training students to use these techniques.

The Effects of Self-applied Reward and Punishment

In the University of Minnesota Evening Extension course in How-to-Study, students are taught to reward or punish themselves for effective or noneffective study behavior. These students range as broadly as do typical students in an extension division. Thus, in any given class, there may be 17-year-old dropouts and "rather elderly" school teachers picking up credits for advancement or learning new techniques to use in the classroom. There will be a sprinkling of college graduates getting skills refresher preparatory to going back to graduate school and lower management types in the skilled trades planning to go on to college. In this rather varied context of student needs and abilities, the demands on the instructor-counselor are quite varied. One objective of the course is to teach the students to function

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independently in analyzing their own study behavior and taking responsibility for changing it.

Students are taught initially to time themselves while reading a textbook. The behavior of interest is reading rate measured with a simple kitchen timer. This information, converted to a words/minute graph serves as a base rate. Later in the course, the students are given instructions in the technique of self-reward and self-punishment. They are requested as part of the course to apply these techniques to increase rate, study time, or strengthen a number of desirable study habits. The behavior's contingencies and payoffs are chosen by the students themselves. The instructor functions merely as a consultant. Let us turn to case reports of this procedure as a way of modifying study behavior.[2]

CASE #1. Margaret is a 35-year-old Sister in a religious teaching order. She holds a B.S. degree. She feels that she has problems separating major and minor details in her own reading. She tends to be meticulous and careful in her work. Prior to the modification procedure her study reading was about 100 words a minute without underlining. Her recreational reading rate was initially quite high. Her results are presented in Figure 1.

We note that under the contract her study type reading, including underlining, increased in speed. She herself pointed out that within a given hour of reading, her study rate accelerates and then drops whereas recreational reading continues to increase. However, she felt the contract was a distinct improvement in her study behavior.

CASE #2. Terry is an 18-year-old and unemployed. On the initial night of class he reported his main problem as getting started on home work. Starting on the 20th of September and continuing until the 18th of November, Terry submitted no home work. Although threatened with dismissal from class, he produced nothing. On the 18th of November after group discussion, he decided to use 15 minutes of rock and roll music as a reward for five minutes of text reading. **A contract was signed and witnessed by his classmates with a certain seriousness and formality.**

Terry presented his chart to the class at the next meeting. The other students expressed their obvious approval. Following the presentation, Terry, previously quite shy and mute, participated in class and continued to be a lively contributor. He reports that now he no longer needs to use the music as a reinforcer for study.

CASE #3. Jane is a 23-year-old college graduate. Her high school achievement put her in the upper quarter, but her tested ability was in the lowest quarter for University of Minnesota students. She enrolled in a course to improve her reading speed, comprehension and concentration. Her hobby interests include training a German shepherd for obedience trials. Initially, she set the terms such that for every 20 pages she would walk her dog one mile. Because of her interest in training this was a satisfying, rewarding situation for her. She charted her rate of reading and presented the results in Figure 3.

We note that after the contract was placed in effect there was a slight initial drop. When the rate had stabilized she entered into a second conrtact involving a higher criterion. The results are presented in Figure 4.

The first segment of Figure 4 is a base rate from the contract summarized in Figure 3. Under the new contract in segment A for 40 pages she would walk her dog one and one-half miles. She found minimal effects. At that point, she instigated a new contract in segment B, an avoidance situation. Gaiting involves running the dog and is somewhat aversive to her. This resulted in an immediate jump in her rate.

CASE #4. Wayne is a 25-year-old high school graduate with some college experience. He reports he has trouble getting started with study. He works as a supervisor for a section of clerical personnel.

His selected contingency was to wear a rather disreputable sport coat if he did not put in a full 60 minutes of study each night. His case is summarized in Figure 5.

The effect took hold only after his subordinates kidded him about his dress. In the week after submitting the graph he reports obtaining a good 60 minutes study period merely by hanging the sport coat over his desk.

CASE #5. Mary is a 32-year-old high school graduate with one and one-half years of junior college. She is a trained X-Ray technologist. She chain-smoked during the class hour. She decided to use smoking as a contingency in improving her reading rate. Her contract reported, in Figure 6, took hold almost immediately.

(Figure Charts on Pages 73, 74, 75)

FIGURE 1

NAME: SISTER MARGARET

BEHAVIOR: INCREASE RATE

CONTRACT: FOR 1 PAGE TEXT UNDERLINED_____
READ 2 PAGES RECREATION-----

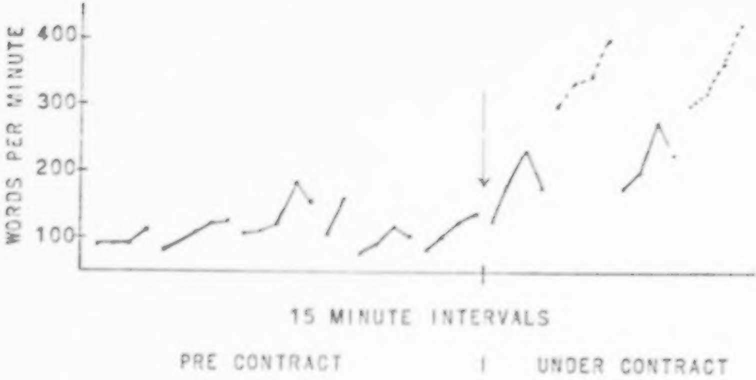


FIGURE 2

NAME: TERRY

BEHAVIOR: START DOING HOMEWORK

CONTRACT SIGNED IN CLASS 11/18: 5 PAGES TEXT
FOR 15 MINUTES OF MUSIC

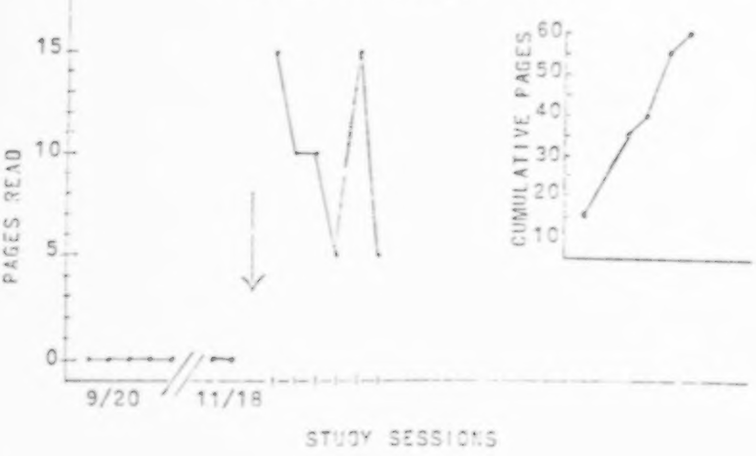


FIGURE 3

NAME: JANE

BEHAVIOR: FASTER READING

CONTRACT: FOR EVERY 20 PAGES, WALK DOG 1 MILE

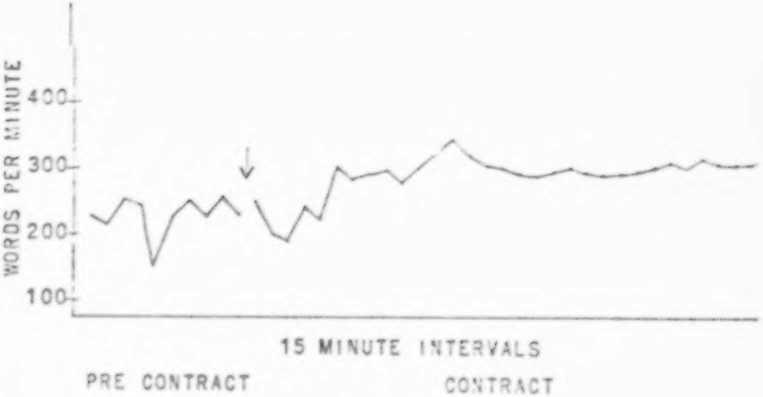


FIGURE 4

NAME: JANE

BEHAVIOR: FASTER READING

CONTRACT: A FOR 40 PAGES, WALK DOG 1½ MILES
B IF RATE BELOW 300 W/M, MUST GAIT DOG AROUND BLOCK

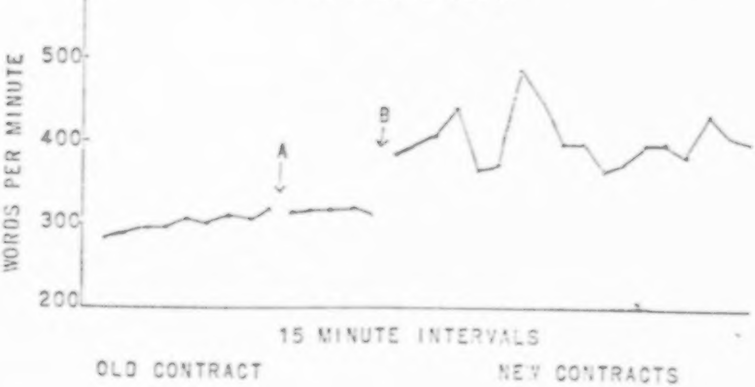


FIGURE 5

NAME: WAYNE

BEHAVIOR: SPEND 60 MINUTES IN STUDY, OR ELSE
WEAR OLD SPORT COAT TO WORK NEXT DAY

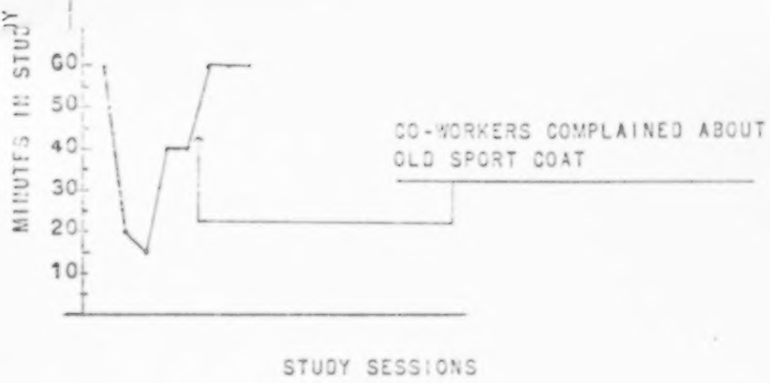
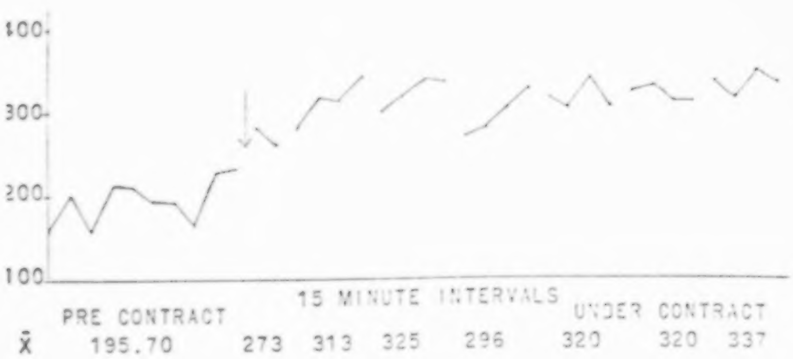


FIGURE 6

NAME: MARY

BEHAVIOR: FASTER STUDY RATE

CONTRACT: IF RATE GOES BELOW 300 W/M THEN
NO SMOKING FOR NEXT HOUR



The Theoretical Basis for Self-Control

Let us examine some of the theoretical background for the cases that have just been presented. Reinforcement is a fundamental concept. A reinforcer (or a reward as it is less technically called) is some stimulus which increases the probability of a certain behavior in the future. So for example, a hungry pigeon may be presented with two lighted disks, one red and one white. Each time he pecks at the red target, he gets access to food (a new stimulus) for a short period. When he pecks at the white disk, both disks go blank for a few seconds. We find after a short time that the pigeon pecks almost continuously at the red disk. We say that the behavior has been reinforced since it becomes more probable each time the pigeon gets food for pecking that he will peck at the red disk in the future. We also say that pecking the white disk has become extinguished since it drops out of his behavior. This is a very crude overview of operant conditioning techniques. For a more detailed explanation, see Holland and Skinner.[3] This same reinforcing technique has been applied to behavior changes in all sorts of organisms, from flatworms to Harvard sophomores.

Most of the work in the early reinforcement research used rather basic biological rewards. Skinner worked with hungry rats and pigeons. Other people have worked with thirsty organisms. The various reinforcers for experimental research have been food, water, and on occasion, sex. These three rewards are easily manipulated in a psychological laboratory. However, it is rather difficult to use them when working with normal, uncontrolled, human beings. Relatively few people are willing to go hungry, thirsty, or celibate merely to learn how to read faster. Fortunately, some rather interesting research by David Premack[4] enabled us to extend the concept of a reinforcer in a very important way.

Premack starts with the observation that for any given person, some behaviors are more probable than other behaviors. Thus, in one study he found that some children would rather play with a pinball machine than eat candy, while another group of youngsters would rather eat candy than play with the pinball. He presented both the pinball machine and the candy dispenser and let the children do as they would. He was thus able to gather base rate information for the probabilities of these two behaviors. Then he demonstrates very effectively that once two behaviors have been ranked in terms of preference for a particular person the opportunity to engage in the higher probability behavior can reinforce or increase the probability of engaging in the lower probability behavior. Thus, he found that some children, who would rather eat candy than play pinball, could be encouraged to do more pinball playing if everytime they played with the pinball machine they earned a chance to eat some candy. All well and good. Everybody knows that little kids will do things to get candy.

The interesting case was that of the other group of youngsters. These are the youngsters who would prefer to play the pinball machine. By appropriate control of the contingencies, Premack changed their behavior. In order to get a chance at the pinball machine, the kids had to eat a piece of chocolate. It was a sort of psychological force-feeding but it was most impressive in demonstrating the new set of reinforcers.

Premack thus took us far beyond the limits of food, water, and sex when dealing with human beings. He suggested that a reinforcer can be a chance to do some high probability behavior. Once any two behaviors were ranked, the chance to engage in the higher probability behavior could be used to increase the lower probability behavior. If you want a good homemade analog you might think of the usual situation at mealtime with regard to rutabagas and ice cream. The way to get the kid to eat his rutabaga is to hold the ice cream until after the rutabagas are gone. Of course, if there were some perverse little monsters that preferred rutabaga, the contingencies could be shifted.

Another relevant area of research, central to the problem of self-control of behavior, has to do with the effects of the social psychology of public commitment. Shortly before his death, the eminent social psychologist Kurt Lewin summarized a series of studies designed to change the attitude of housewifes towards various kinds of new foods.[5] Once these attitudes had been manipulated it would be possible to measure the change in food habits that followed. Thus, we have an area in which social psychological techniques would be used to change behavior. Any results could be applied to the field of reading and study skills.

Lewin studied first of all the problem related to increasing positive attitude towards "variety meats." In the context of the study, and at the time when the study was performed (the meat rationing days of World War II), variety meats meant beef hearts, sweetbreads, and kidneys. These particular items of bovine delicacy, while they were very nutritious and inexpensive, were not looked upon with great favor. The time was well before the days of Julia Child. Thus, he found that after a control condition lecture on the advantages of variety meats only 3% of the homemaker audience changed their cooking patterns. In the experimental situation the same kind of information was presented, stressing the value of variety meats. But the initial emphasis was on "other housewives like themselves." During the course of the discussion, the emphasis shifted from "other housewives" to a more personal "how would you feel?" At the end of the meeting, the women were asked by a showing of hands who was willing to try one of the meats within the next week. The names of the people volunteering were not recorded. However, on a two week follow-up, 32% of the people were seen to be eating "variety meats." This was opposed to the 3% who changed their eating behavior on the basis of a pure lecture.

Lewin reports other attempts to change food-related behavior. He compared lectures and individual instruction with the method of group decision by a show of hands. He found that merely making a public commitment was terribly important. Thus in teaching new mothers to give cod liver oil and orange juice to their infants, personal, individual instruction produced only 15% compliance after four weeks. But, after a group discussion, and public decision, compliance was much enhanced. Two weeks later, 45% of the mothers had changed their behavior. Four weeks later, the percent of compliant mothers had jumped to 50%.

Analysis of the Five Cases in the Light of Relevant Research

If we look now at the cases in the light of the research that has just been summarized, we get some insight as to the mechanisms for the reported behavior changes. Some of the cases were obviously using a straight reinforcement situation. But notice that none of the cases involved Skinner's basic reinforcers: water, food, or sex. Sister Margaret, and Terry were both on a type of Premack schedule. Both decided what they would prefer to do rather than read and then made reading the price for the higher probability behavior. Terry made the situation more effective by engaging in a formal contract. In other words, he used public commitment to strengthen his own intention to change. Without his self-commitment it's unlikely that any kind of behavior modification techniques would work. However, it seems likely that he made similar resolutions in the past which did not produce changes in behavior. Apparently what is significant here is his own commitment, plus a specific consequence for that behavior, plus the social pressure engendered when other students witnessed his contract. Thus we have a combination of Premack and Lewin. Jane used a straight reward situation, again using something she would prefer to do as the reward for something that was a little less desirable. Wayne, using his old sport coat, was engaging in strictly social pressure. And we notice that the effect did not take over until other people became significant in mediating that pressure. Thus, it was not until the co-workers complained about his sport coat that he showed the appropriate jump in behavior.

Finally, there is the interesting situation of self-application of punishment. Mary, and Jane in her second contract, increased their reading using a punishing situation. Mary had to give up something that she wanted and Jane had to avoid doing something that she didn't want under the terms of her contract. In both cases, the effect was quite marked.

SUMMARY

What we have then is a type of instrumented motivation. Certain research findings, relevant to reinforcement, preference, and social control are brought to bear upon a significant area of human behavior —reading and study skills. The counselor functions merely as an information disseminator and discussion leader. The student must make the choice of what he wants to do and what he will use as his payoff for doing it. Once this agreement has been made, and formalized, motivation seems to increase.

What if the contract is not carried out? What then does the counselor do? He helps the student modify the contract. If the cost was too high or the punishment not great enough, he must renegotiate the contract with his student. On the one hand it is a problem of keeping the student from biting off more than he can chew. On the other hand, it is preventing the student from being too severe with himself. It is not as automatic as the tape-recording but the procedures can be thought of as another way of instrumenting the significant area of human behavior.

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DIRECTING THE ACADEMIC POTENTIAL OF THE SUPERIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT

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When we turn our thoughts to a consideration of the student with intellect and of the methods used to educate him, we should literally shudder at the amount of intellectual waste that is produced. Bias, jealously, and lack of understanding of the needs and motives of the intellectually superior student all seem to work against the full development of our culture's most useful asset—intellects that are creative, inventive, productive, filled with a curiosity for finding out about the "what" and "why" of all the facets of living. How quietly these intellects are strangled in the daily assignment, the spoon feeding, the teacher's wish to dominate, the passion to teach only the average in an average sort of way.

Phillips, Wiener and Haring[1] have much to say concerning discipline, achievement and the mental health of superior children. Let me quote briefly some ideas from them:

"No only has the actual educational achievement of the bright student lagged . . ., but his morale, self respect and self discipline have also been harmed."

"One persistent and insidious educational problem with the bright child is that he is able to get by with little work and make acceptable or even above average grades with minimum effort and application".

Cohen[2] indicates some other considerations:

"There still persists an uneasy feeling that the young intellectual is standoffish, unrealistic, noisy, nonconformist . . ."

"There also persists an opposite view—one endowing him with virtues the total of which no human being has ever possessed. Intelligent, talented, creative, self confident, poised, articulate, brilliant."

But, we realize all of this, do we not? Then what is done about it?

Some schools are creating programs more in keeping with the academic potential of the superior child: The Cherry Creek School District, Arapahoe County, Colorado; the Bronx High School of Science; Pittsburgh Public Schools Scholar's Program, to name a few. These efforts are, however, much more than acceleration where bright youngsters are admitted to grade one at 5 or even 4 years of age; or skipping grades which provides a vertical curriculum but very little depth; or allowing students to complete high school in fewer than 4 years.[3] It is much more a process outlined by Cohen (1966) suggesting that there are several characteristics to be considered:

"Students must be grouped by ability for several years.

Must be restricted to not more than 20% of the student body.

Must have different goals than standard academic fare.

It should aim for a firmer grasp of the method of a discipline.

It should rely more on independent study.

It should have a more conscientious attempt to see relationships and structure rather than to learn facts for themselves."[4]

These would seem to be very reasonable goals for any progressive educational effort that is truly interested in providing education for all of the children under its jurisdiction. The average student does very well when we consider the finances and amount of time allocated to his needs. We find more and more thought being given to the educational experience of mentally retarded children; but where is the "equal financing—equal effort" in philosophy for the superior child? Bias is a very large factor here. It is a rather common thing to hear that the exceptional child is bright, therefore, he can get along very well on his own: ergo, we do not really have to provide anything extra for him. "We really do not want them to get the idea that their superiority entitles them to privileges or to a non-democratic type of social behavior. Even though publicists and entertainers like to show these children off, we certainly would not consider this proper recognition and guidance of their intellectual superiority."[5]

I like the word guiding when referring to the way we can most benefit the superior student at any grade level. The student can do so much more on his own than we as teachers can possibly do for him. The day of oral communication of ideas and information has given way to numerous other forms of communication that are more rapid, interesting and informative.

Our Canadian communications philosopher Marshall MacLuhan has made this abundantly clear. Reading the proceedings of this conference will be at least three times faster than sitting here and listening to me. Perhaps it may take only ½ of one minute to read about what I am saying, should you only read the summary. Videotape and televised programs of all kinds appeal to the visual, auditory and learned sensations of the fertile mind thereby imprinting a greater response than that to be made by voice alone. Reading widely in a designated area for one hour is more to be enjoyed and more productive of thoughtful experience than hearing one person recite for an hour from a book or notes, something that can be read in minutes.

Why must the superior intellect sit in a class and listen to information he may be better adapted to synthesize than the person who offers it? How much better to read widely and then discuss with others as keen as himself under the guidance of a master teacher, the cause and effect relationships in historical incidents: the better way of presenting a point in written composition: the line of thinking in solving a mathematical problem: the excitement of summing up an original experiment in the science laboratory. Why cannot we excite them by showing them the new frontiers of knowledge and then let them have a crack at pushing the frontiers back during the rest of their lives.

"Approaching the school building one morning, one firstgrader said to another, "Do you think that man will ever reach the moon by rocket or other projectiles?"

"Certainly not," said the other. "There are too many unknown forces in the substratosphere . . ."

The ringing bell ended the conversation. One lad remarked, "Silence that dreadful bell—it means we gotta go in and squeeze clay."[6]

What happens to the superior student's aggressive curiosity after he reaches school? Horowitz indicates that children tend to adopt the ready made attitudes of adults.[7] When teachers tell the child what to think and when to think it, but not how to think, we have parrots and rubber stamped thought processes. How much better to sit with a group of children and ask questions of them to find out how they are thinking, how they use information, how to find more information, then allow them time to find it, then sit down and discuss it again. Luchins showed that students who develop the habit of solving problems in a fixed way are less successful on a related but new type of problem than are comparable students who have developed no fixed set toward such problems.[8] Maslow had made the same point by saying that individuals have a tendency to "rubricize"—to designate or categorize—in matters of attention, perception, learning and thinking. He goes on to develop the "rubricizing" idea by dividing rubricized thought into 3 phases: (1) having stereotyped problems, (2) using stereotyped rote techniques of solving problems, (3) having sets of ready-made solutions and conclusions.[9]

True, there is a great deal of security in knowing in advance what problem will be presented, the method of solving it, and that the solution will never vary—especially if it is the teacher who is involved with teaching the solutions to problems. John Holt writes a chapter on "Real Learning" in his little book, **How Children Fail.** Very interesting. I recommend it to you. I like his reference to silicone putty. He stretched it, kneaded it, flattened it and tore it into small pieces. It was suggested that he try throwing it on the floor. All learning said that when you throw putty on the floor it goes SPLAT and just lies there. He said "When it bounced as high as my head, the universe rocked around me. I was on the brink of terror. Something in my mind said 'O.K.' so it bounces. So what else is new? and order and reason was restored."[10] It is in the stretching and the working of minds that they become fertile and productive rather than barren and inhibited. It is in the light of new methods, new ideas, new inventions, new frontiers that the mind is capable of expansion. This indicates the need for teachers who are as well trained and competent with the intellectually superior as the teachers of the mentally retarded and slow learners are well trained and competent. Advanced training for teachers of the intellectually superior is becoming a reality at the universities. A few high schools are allowing certain students to prepare research experiments. The students involved in these opportunities never complain of too much work, only that the day is not long enough. Interest and motivation are high. Even the teacher is challenged. Russell says that the problem becomes one, not of suppressing or eliminating emotional and attitudinal behaviors but of giving them a driving, directive force in thinking processes which will increase the purposefulness and efficiency of thought.[11]

We seem to need many changes in the practices of "educating everyone to his full potential." A short list must include: the opportunity for the mentally superior to rise to full potential; teachers who constantly update their own academic potential, and are no less students than the charges with whom they work. The superior student must be identified as early as possible and provided with materials and a curriculum that will challenge rather than pacify him, so that morale, self respect and self discipline will grow, so we may never read again, the concluding essay.

> "Spring: An Essay
>
> Spring is my favorite season of the year because we have spring vacation and right after spring vacation we have summer vacation.
>
> When spring comes the weather is much more pleasant and the teachers give us less homework.
>
> In spring lots of tornadoes come and everyone is hoping that one will come and destroy the school. And with the tornadoes comes rain and hail which might flood the city. Then not one person will have to go to school.
>
> Spring is my best season of the year."[12]

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THE STRATEGY INVOLVED IN THE TEACHING OF READING AT JUNIOR COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY LEVELS

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The teaching of reading at the college-adult level, if it is to be successful, must meet the reading needs of students and actually show them how to make more effective use of their textbooks. It is the purpose of this paper to show some of the reading needs of college students, some approaches that are being made to meet these needs, and to outline a strategy that has been productive of success on the campus of Western Michigan University.

Some Reading Needs of Students

A study by McGinnis[1] of over one thousand second semester freshmen shows that nearly a third of the number reported that in their opinion they were not reading well enough to do good academic work. Approximately the same number said they did not know how to read effectively a chapter nor did they know how to concentrate upon a reading activity. Thirty per cent pointed out that they did not know what to accept and what to reject as they read the news media of our time. Shepherd[2], for example, shows that students reading in the social studies need to develop skills in reading for a purpose, to develop concepts essential to the subject, to identify supporting details, to recognize relationships, and to determine the sequence of events. Conferences with students reveal the fact that they lack the experiential background and mental content essential to an interpretation and evaluation of materials they are attempting to read. This is especially true of the students sponsored by foundations and governmental agencies who are coming into our colleges and universities. These young people not generally recommended for college are intelligent and capable of making an adequate social adjustment. They lack, however, the background and language skills required for the effective reading of their college textbooks and reference materials. Many have not learned to read and even to listen at a mature level. They do not know when to skim and when to dig deeply into the maze of ideas. They actually memorize details of minor significance and miss entirely the major structure of the text. They have little with which to read and listen. Can teachers of college reading respond adequately to this challenge?

Some Approaches to the Problem

A study of the literature dealing with the teaching of reading at the college-adult level shows three major approaches in use at the present time. These are briefly summarized.

Clinical Studies Approach

Some institutions of higher learning provide reading clinics for students demonstrating marked reading disabilities. In some colleges these students pay a fee and in others no fee is required. After a diagnosis is made, treatment is provided individually and in small groups. Both instruction and therapy are utilized, and in some instances workbooks and mechanistic equipment are employed. In this approach the clinician assumes the responsibility of remediation, and the student frequently acquires a passive and dependent role.

Skill-Drill Approach

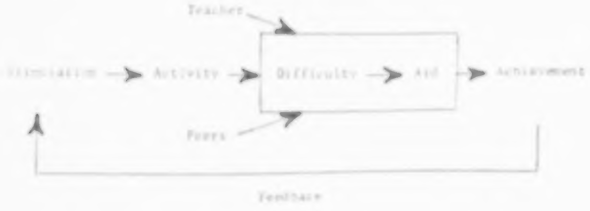
The most common approach involves the development of basic reading skills through the use of exercises generally prescribed in a workbook. These skill-drill procedures are designed to aid the student in the development of his vocabularies and his ability to read sentences, paragraphs, and even longer units of thought. Structural analysis and methods of word attack are utilized. Generally, instruction is specific in nature and focused upon isolated, yet worthy, objectives which appear to the student to be unrelated to his goals. Comprehension is generally regarded as an accumulation of these basic skills rather than an integration. Gains made by students between the time of their initial and final test scores are generally significant. In many instances, however, there is little evidence of transfer of basic skills to the use of textbook materials.

Goal Oriented Approach

College students of today show a high degree of sophistication and are not interested in learning about reading. Instead they want to learn how reading can be employed by them to accomplish their goals. They want to earn good grades and to earn them as effectively as possible and with minimal expenditure of effort and time. Some of the more mature students and those doing graduate study have projects upon which they are working and which, in their opinions, require extensive and rapid reference reading. These students want to improve their reading for a definite purpose and are not interested in clinical studies even of themselves and practice exercises which some of them call "busy work."

In the goal oriented approach to the teaching of reading stimulation provided or controlled by the teacher can lead to activity on the part of the student. This activity whether it be reading or any attempt to accomplish a purpose can, and frequently does, result in difficulty. At this point in the process aid in the form of instruction is provided. Under favorable conditions this aid can result in achievement and the realization of the student's goal. This achievement generally results in "feedback" and the increase of stimulation for more activity and—more success. The following drawing illustrates this sequence of events. In this process, the teacher stimulates the student, informs him as to how his difficulty can be overcome, and guides him toward the attainment of his goal. In carrying out these activities the instructor utilizes lectures, demonstrations, and class discussion. Temporary grouping to accomplish specific objectives is frequently employed. Individual conferences conducted by graduate assistants are encouraged. In all of these activities three strategies are apparent. They are stimulate, inform, and guide.

A GOAL ORIENTED PROCESS



Strategy, A Means to An End

The youth of our time are rebelling against the concept that our colleges and universities are repositories of knowledge and information which are dispensed by individuals called professors. They point out that our colleges are more like banks than sources of atomic energy and that many professors regard the minds of their students as storehouses rather than instruments for creative behavior. Most of our students are coming to institutions of higher learning for help. They want to be stimulated, informed, and guided with the emphasis on stimulation and guidance. Let us see how this can be accomplished in the teaching of reading.

The successful teacher must be a dynamic individual who can arouse and "turn on" his students so that they can see how the ability to read effectively is actually related to their success in the university and to their adjustment in the world in which they live. Students are interested in learning how adequate reading skills can bring about an economy of time and effort in preparation for their classes. They are impressed by Dan Lacy's[3] statement that "There is no way on earth you can teach a college student today what he will need to know about economics or political science or physics or engineering 25 years hence," unless the student can be taught "to read—and with eager curiosity and zest to go on reading through life." Mature students can be stimulated to pursue an interest, to investigate an issue, and to solve problems of their own choosing. Their desire to create should be awakened, and their willingness to contribute should be aroused. They should be encouraged to take well-known ideas and put them together in a new pattern. They must understand that they have much to give and that this can be enhanced by effective reading and worthy communication. They must appreciate the fact that reading is the very essence of education which in reality is much more than the accumulation of information. Students at all levels should understand that many individuals have achieved their goals by developing certain basic reading skills and that what others have done, they too can do.

Ideas and information, like funds in the bank, are of little value unless they can be employed to achieve a purpose. Students in our world, even some freshmen, are well aware of these facts. Few are interested in a lecture on how to read a chapter effectively and well. Students want to be shown how to identify main ideas, how to read for a purpose, and how to make ideas their own. They want to know how to apply this information to their textbooks in various subject matter fields. They want aid in the solution of their problems and in the mastery of their difficulties. In order to inform adequately the instructors must demonstrate workable techniques, and students must see their practical application. Information must accomplish a specific purpose.

In the process of informing students, it will be necessary for the instructor to do more than teach reading. Tutoring for short periods of time will be necessary, and therapeutic measures for some students will be essential to their progress. The psychological aspects of concentration are of interest and can be helpful to all students. The self concept of the student can be built up by a reinforcement of desired responses. Praise and commendation, when well deserved, can accomplish much when treating the insecure student. To inform successfully the instructor must know his students and their needs. He must do more than "just teach."

During the informing process mental content and experiential background can be built up in small conferences conducted by group leaders selected by students in such subject matter areas as biology, literature, and mathematics. In these situations each student can have something to contribute and the summation of all mental content presented can be applied effectively by the students in the use of their textbooks. In addition to this plan, the "Buddy system" of study is reported to be effectual by students in the social studies and the sciences because concept development in these areas is regarded by the students as of great importance to them.

The good guide is an experienced individual who has been over the way before. He is well acquainted with the difficulties of the trail and he knows where and how to find that which is being sought. He takes into account the strengths and weaknesses of those he guides. He is considerate of their welfare and yet does nothing for them which they are capable of doing for themselves.

The successful reading teacher at the college-adult level regards reading as a thinking process which is dependent upon the experiential background of the reader. He is familiar with the physiological, psychological, environmental, and educational factors which can adversely affect reading performance. He learns to focus his attention upon the student and to interpret his performance rather than merely evaluate it. He identifies the student's difficulty and provides the necessary aid.

In the performance of these acts the instructor on the campus of Western Michigan University utilizes the text, **Reading, A Key to Academic Success.**[4] Appendix A of this book furnishes an informal reading inventory which, when completed by the student, acquaints the instructor with information essential to the counseling and guidance of the individual.

To guide successfully involves stimulation of the student to more activity, to more reading, and to the initiation of more projects of special interest to himself. This involves a sensitivity on the part of the student to problems in his environment, to creativity, to capable integration of ideas, and to a further elaboration of their meaning. To effective reading, there is no end.

Summary

The writer of this paper has suggested three strategies for meeting the reading needs of college students. In a goal oriented process, use has been made of stimulation, information, and guidance. It has been suggested that instruction as well as therapy be personalized in the process of teaching reading at the college-adult level.

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WHAT ABOUT THE SEVERELY DISABLED?

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The severely disabled reader reads any where from two to ten years below his grade placement. This disables him in two very important other ways: First, he cannot achieve in today's schools, and second he cannot be productive in today's society. Therefore, he is a potential school drop out and a candidate for delinquency and welfare.

Estimates are that reading and school failures due to factors over which the school has little or no control vary from 1 to 5%. Estimates of the number of severely retarded readers in high schools run as high as 30%. This 30% in the high school is based on the number of students who cannot read material assigned, cannot write reports, compositions, cannot spell and cannot listen attentively. Many of these disabled readers are in colleges and universities. With the rapid rise in numbers of junior colleges, an even larger percentage of these retarded readers will be enrolled there.

Considering these percentages it is very conservative to estimate that two-thirds of these reading disability cases could have been prevented through better teaching in the first place. So doing something about the severely disabled reader becomes a three-part problem: 1) doing corrective work with the ones we have already produced 2) doing preventive work with the ones we are in the process of producing, and 3) using a multi-faceted approach to the ones who have problems other than pure instructional ones.

Unfortunately in educational programs at all levels we are spending our major effort on correction. And even these efforts at correction are poor in relation to what we know about diagnosis and correction. The greatest percentage of teachers working most directly with the disabled reader have little or no training in relation to the job to be done. Title I teachers became the instant reading specialists: this happened by legislative decree and regulations in state departments of education. This program has created a curious situation in the school because many of the teachers utilized have been retired teachers, substitute teachers, or teachers with provisional certification, or teachers with preparation in highly specific areas, far removed from the language arts.

This situation is largely created by the consistent behavior of congress in not creating permanent legislation so that reliance on some permanent level of subsidy can be assumed when planning programs. In other words the special reading teachers may be the only ones in the district who are hired without intent to acquire tenure. Thus teachers who have had some training in language arts are reluctant to take Title I positions when they have an opportunity to do so. Since most of the multi-level materials for instruction were purchased with Title I funds, they are assigned to teachers who do not know how best to use them. The teacher with better training remains in the classroom with inadequate materials for teaching the ways she has learned to teach reading better—in relation to the child's instructional needs. So this system has created these two sets of highly frustrated teachers: those who are expected to do a job they do not know how to do, and those who know how to do more than they can do. This frustration must produce some kind of effect on the pupils these teachers teach.

In terms of correctional programs, except for a very small percentage of pupils, knowledge about diagnosis and correction, and materials available are very adequate for teaching these students to read up to a level which approximates their capacity. However the conditions under which this kind of teaching can go on must be created. These include: thorough diagnosis: individual or small group instruction in reading, writing, spelling, speaking skills: and small group instruction applying these skills to various content fields.

In terms of prevention of severely disabled readers the most important places to attack this problem are in the following programs: 1) pre-service education of teachers: 2) intensive in-service training for master teachers who supervise student teaching: 3) in-service education of regular classroom teachers, supervisors and administrators, and 4) training for parents to understand what educational programs are trying to accomplish and how to help their children accomplish realistic goals.

Now, what about that 1 to 5% of the population who won't learn to read even when ideal programs for prevention and correction are utilized? We need continued and better research related to what we suspect these disabled readers problems to be, which are: emotional and social maladjustment, neurological problems, visual and auditory problems, language problems, and environmental problems.

The research in these areas is very confusing. There is not yet enough agreement in the research to give very definite guidelines about prevention and correction. Yet there is enough research to alert the reading teacher to suspect that certain symptoms suggest more thorough and more varied diagnosis. We know enough to adjust some learning conditions and goals to these readers' needs. To deal with these problems the teacher needs an open mind and willingness to accept tentative types of information. The teacher must be willing to experiment, to find out by trial and error some things which may succeed.

In summary, the attack upon the problems of disabled readers and learners is a problem which requires major attention to programs of prevention and correction. Changes in public school and college programs are essential. And for the small percentage of students who present unusual cases a great deal more research is needed.

Abstract

ORAL READING PATTERNS AMONG SUBGROUPS OF URBAN DISADVANTAGED

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One of the present concerns in education is meeting the problems of minority groups. In this paper I shall discuss one phase of this problem in the area of reading diagnosis: namely, the performance of ninth-grade Negro and Spanish-English speakers from three secondary schools located in ghetto areas in New York City. The data in this paper were derived from a larger study in which I investigated the question: What difference does it make in a reading diagnosis if the **Gray Oral Reading Test** is read orally at sight or read silently and then orally?

Conclusions and Recommendations. 1. There is no difference in achievement between the Spanish-English speakers and the Negroes for achievement on the **Gray Oral Reading Test.**

2. Both samples are superior in code breaking ability as compared with comprehension. Furthermose, there is no difference in achieve-

ment between the two samples when reading under Silent-oral or Oral conditions. A tentative explanation for these results might be that students seldom figure out pronunciations of words while reading silently unless the words interfere with comprehension. This explanation might be the focus of some further research.

3. Those who construct oral reading diagnostic tests as well as those who use them must have a degree of linguistic sophistication in order to differentiate between the use of dialect and rapid speech pronunciations and oral reading errors. If dialectical pronunciations and usages had been counted as reading errors, the Gray Oral Reading scores would have been significantly lower.

4. The error patterns for the two ethnic groups are significantly different for partial mispronunciations under the Oral condition and for Repetitions under the Silent-oral condition, when the performance of the two ethnic groups is compared.

5. When the error patterns of each ethnic group are considered separately, the Spanish-English speakers make significantly more partial mispronunciations under the oral condition. The Negroes make significantly more gross mispronunciations and substitutions under the silent-oral condition and more repetitions under the oral condition. Also, the comprehension of the Negroes is significantly higher under the silent-oral condition.

6. The scope of the present study needs to be extended with stratified random samples drawn for each ethnic group so that more sophisticated analyses of the data can be made and to see where some of the trends in this study will lead. As an additional bonus, if adequate samples are drawn, normative data for the schools serving various ethnic groups in ghetto areas can be developed.

Abstract

DIALECT INTERACTION BETWEEN NEGRO AND PUERTO RICAN CHILDREN IN NEW YORK CITY

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The tremendous emphasis on the education of the "disadvantaged" has made it important for educators to know what relationships exist between dialect, auditory discrimination, and reading. Labov's work on English spoken in New York suggests that the same nonstandard phonological features are shared by most dialects of the language. The present study grew out of theories of Labov and Sardy which suggested that the articulation of different racial and ethnic groups which interacted linguistically would not be very different from one another. The investigators hypothesized that the dialect articulation of Puerto Rican children who interacted linguistically with Negro children would be significantly different from linguistically insulated Puerto Rican children.

Interacting Puerto Rican and Insulated Puerto Rican groups were given Gross' Pronunciation Test and Auditory Discrimination Test for Dialect Sounds. All responses were taped, scored, and checked for inter-rater reliability. It was found that of the six sounds that were most difficult for the Interacting Puerto Rican group to pronounce and to hear were also among the most difficult for the Negro group tested by Gross. The insulated group had difficulty with only two sounds which appeared on the Negro list. The evidence in this paper suggests that the linguistically interacting Puerto Rican groups' articulation and discrimination patterns were more like the Negro pattern than that of the linguistically insulated Puerto Rican group.

Abstract

THE RELATIONSHIP OF RESIDENTIAL SEGREGATION TO CERTAIN READING AND LANGUAGE SKILLS IN URBAN DISADVANTAGED READERS

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This study investigated relationships between urban residential segregation and selected auditory discrimination and phonics skills among middle and lower class Negro Puerto Rican and White fourth graders.

The differences between ethnolinguistic group distributions of discrimination scores were significant at the .01 level with differences favoring the White group. Factor analysis revealed that qualitative performance crossed ethnolinguistic and socio-economic class lines.

Phonics scores were not significantly related to either sex or ethnolinguistic group membership. Socioeconomic class membership was highly significant. Middle class children far outperformed their lower class peers on factors which selected specific language and spelling structures. These findings raised serious questions concerning the strength of the phonics training of the lower class population and implications for reading achievement. The qualitative relationship between auditory discrimination and phonics skills appeared to be a function of the language styles of the subjects tested.

THE READING TEACHER IN PROGRAMS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN: TEACHING READING TO THE EMR

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The monumental first grade study of the effectiveness of various methods of teaching reading sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education clearly specified that quality of teaching is more important than any given methodology. Even so, the debate about the most effective approach to teaching phonics continues. While this debate normally occurs within the context of regular public school programs, it is also found within the more narrow confines of special education, educating the mentally retarded. Whether the child is intellectually bright, normal, slow learning, or mentally retarded there are problems in interpreting reading research and applying its conclusions to classroom practice, in training teachers to accurately determine instructional reading levels, and in designing and carrying out further research. Clearly there is an important role in special education programs for the person with profound knowledge of the teaching of reading.

The Research on Teaching Reading to the EMR

The research on teaching the EMR to read has reflected two major areas of interest, the setting of realistic expectancy levels of reading achievement for EMR's and the best methodology of teaching reading skills to the EMR. This second research area can be subdivided into five major categories: (1) the phonic method; (2) the sight method; (3) the kinesthetic method; (4) the automated techniques; (5) differing administrative procedures.

Research on these topics is sparse. The most complete review is to be found in **Mental Retardation, A Review of Research**[1]. The most commonly cited authorities on the education of the mentally retarded are Dunn,[2] Kirk,[3] and Johnson.[4] The consensus about teaching methodology is that synthetic phonics is superior to analytic phonics because it can be more highly structured into an organized sequence.

Heckman's study[5] compared two like groups of EMR's under two different methods of learning to read. The control group of 10 children was taught by the basic reader approach; the experimental group of 14 children had the same basic program plus an additional half-hour of phonovisual instruction. Results indicated a favorable improvement in the areas of sentence reading, paragraph comprehension, and spelling for the experimental group. There was also a significant difference, favoring the experimental group, in word recognition. Bennett and Rau[6] advocate synthetic phonics because EMR's do not generally remember words, they are slow in rote learning, they have short attention spans and deficiencies in language. Bennett and Rau stress the need to use learning materials of high interest and the advantage of keeping motivation high; to motivate they suggest the use of flashcards, filmstrips, and tachistoscopic techniques. Other studies by French,[7] Coleman,[8] McIntyre,[9] Storey,[10] Hegge,[11] and Broem[12] claim either marked progress or increased achievement as the result of systematic phonic instruction.

Unfortunately the total number of students involved in these studies is small. Much of this research was done during the decades when synthetic phonics was out of favor in the regular school instructional programs; it has been suggested that several factors operate to favor the experimental method in control vs. experimental, test, retest research designs. Kirk indicates that the research has not conclusively demonstrated which method offers the most promise in teaching reading to the mentally retarded and cautions that enthusiasm for a particular method can be a determining variable in research. Caution must be exercised in the interpretation of the limited existing research which contrasts the analytic and synthetic phonics approaches to teaching beginning reading to the mentally retarded child.

Research by proponents of the sight method is virtually nonexistent. The results of a three-year study of 27 children by Bijou[13] and others led them to suggest that discriminating the sounds or "sounding out" should come only after acquiring a sight vocabulary of single words, phrases, and sentences. The study was designed around the effects of programmed learning; the purpose stated was "to develop programmed instructional materials for reading, writing, telling time, handling money, and other correlated practical subjects." There were three interrelated beginning reading programs: a sight vocabulary program, a comprehension program which was divided into two task areas, and a simple phonetic alphabet consisting of short vowels, "hard" consonants, and blends. The children responded to this last approach by making correct sounds when they saw the letters. But it was not the intention of the study to contrast one method with another.

Research using the kinesthetic method of teaching reading is meager. In 1933 Kirk[14] reported an experimental study using this method in contrast to the sight method in teaching word recognition to six subnormal boys. After a fourteen-day period the author could see no significant difference between these two methods. The kinesthetic method did, however, yield a significant difference in measured retention.

A significant study was reported by Mills[15] in 1956. He compared four methods of teaching word recognition. His 58 subjects were seven to nine-year-old children in the second and third grades who were retarded in reading by six months. The four approaches were kinesthetic, phonic, visual, and a combination of these three. The children were compared on their ability to learn ten words in a fifteen-minute period. The words were selected on the basis of the frequency of their use in basal readers and were equated for difficulty on this basis.

Mills found some differences in effectiveness of methods by IQ. The children with IQ's between 65 and 80 generally did best with the kinesthetic approach, but not significantly better than with a visual or combination approach. The phonic approach, which was the least effective over-all, was significantly less helpful for these low IQ pupils. For the children with IQ's between 85 and 100 the visual and combination approaches worked best; the phonic approach worked less well but not significantly so. The kinesthetic approach was the least effective.

Thus, Mills found that the effectiveness of a phonic emphasis in particular depended on IQ; the lower his IQ, the less readily a retarded reader learned by a phonic approach compared with other approaches.

Research in the 1960's indicates curiosity about various automated techniques. A study involving 66 children reported by Maplass[16] and others compared two automated teaching procedures for helping retarded children acquire and retain word recognition, reading, and spelling skills in contrast to conventional classroom instruction. Further, the study compared the effectiveness of two particular automated devices: a semi-automated multiple choice apparatus, the

Teachall, and a keyboard method developed by Wyckoff. The results supported the use of automated instructional procedures over typical classroom instruction in this case meaning word recognition, spelling, and reading. Blackhurst[17] used the tachistoscope as a means of increasing achievement in reading. He concluded that such training is a useful supplement to the reading program. The supplementary lessons using a tachistoscope exposed line drawings, numbers, words, and short phrases with varying exposure time depending upon past performance, difficulty, and progress. Responses were either oral or written with immediate knowledge of results provided. Blackhurst felt that such training would be especially valuable at the secondary levels.

In the second phase of the Daly and Lee Study,[18] 26 children were divided into an experimental group "homogeneous" in terms of reading grade level and an equated control group "heterogeneous" in terms of reading grade level. During a five-month period all subjects received 60 hours of concentrated or intensified reading stimulation. Comparisons between the two groups showed no statistically significant difference. Baker,[19] while not reporting systematic research, described a program characterized by a shift to individualized reading as an attempt to get rid of negative and indifferent attitudes towards reading. The shift was from experience charts and stories and other experimental materials to high interest books at the preprimer level. Baker reported that the educable required time to adjust to the shift but with increased ego strength resulting from individual attention came renewed interest in reading which aided increased skill development.

The question whether to teach phonics is passé. Today the question is "HOW" should phonics be taught. Both the synthetic and analytic camps have their advocates; both cite research to support their positions. The situation is much the same when discussing EMR's except that there are fewer studies and much less data because a small number of children have been involved in the research. But the phonics dilemma is the same, and it will not be resolved until agreement is reached on how achievement is to be measured. Many of the studies which seem to show an advantage for synthetic phonics carefully use only phonically regular words to measure achievement; conversely some of the studies which give the advantage to analytic phonics base their test materials on frequency of usage and so contain words which are irregularly spelled—a situation which may work to the disadvantage of the child trained in a program emphasizing word analysis techniques. Chall[20] makes this criticism of the Mill's study cited earlier. She has this to say:

> Again, however, the phonic approach used in this study relied on words of high frequency, many of which were irregularly spelled. The teacher sounded each letter separately, said the word, and then asked the pupil to do the same. Since many of the ten words to be learned in fifteen minutes could not be sounded letter by letter, and since the phonic elements of those which could be were not limited, learning from Mill's phonic method was a difficult task, especially for retarded readers of below-average intelligence.

While she is admittedly speaking more about "slow learners" than EMR's, Chall suggests that systematic phonics (her word for synthetic phonics) should be more effective because it can be made easier through careful direct teaching of the letter-sound relationships or by learning phonic generalizations from regularly spelled words. She is suggesting that a mental age of less than seven years can master synthetic phonics but that EMR's may fail on the phonics program built into the more traditional basal readers because it requires inductive learning on the part of the child. The point about possible problems in using regular basal readers is further reinforced in a recent report by Koelsch.[21] He studied the relationship between the interests of basal readers (topics included in the stories, etc.) and the interests of EMR's reading on that level. An extremely low correlation led him to conclude that the teacher of the EMR must rewrite standard materials to the interests of the special class student in order to arouse and maintain interest in reading.

Further research on teaching reading skills and sustaining interest in reading of the EMR is badly needed. Research replicating the design of the first grade studies mentioned earlier would seem to be in order; data should be gathered from many classes conducted by many different teachers in many different schools. But really valid classroom data cannot be collected until the problem recognized by Brown[22]—the inaccurate placing of children in instructional materials—has been solved. This is not an uncommon problem in teacher education and suggestions for its solution have been offered by Beldin.[23] The new research must reflect the more sophisticated knowledge we have achieved about verbal learning and verbal behavior. The evaluation of different methods must be done more in terms of child performance or behavioral objectives and less in terms of the similarity between the learning situation and the evaluation technique.

The work of Gordon and Gordon[21] would seem to offer some guidelines for future research. They support the hypothesis "that frequency and emitted order are related measures of habit strength." What they are suggesting is that mentally retarded children tend more often to say words which are related to their recent direct experiences.

A combination of the ideas of Gordon and Gordon, Koelsch, Kirk, and Mills indicates that further research involving the kinesthetic approach with phonically regular words taken from experience stories is in order. The central idea is that the children will furnish many of the words from the order of emission of their verbal responses; the teacher will select the more phonically regular words and regulate the number of phonic units to be learned and thus construct high interest and personal materials from which the children will practice their reading skills. Since encoding is an excellent reinforcing activity for the phonic approach, it can be used and explored through use of kinesthetic techniques. Such an instructional program would require considerable teacher effort and probably an individualized administrative approach. But this design seems to be the one suggested through a careful reading and interpretation of the materials just presented for your consideration.

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EMPHASIZING LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

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During the decade of the 60's the professional literature provides evidence of the growing support of the adage of the ounce of prevention being worth the pound of cure. During this period there has been a focus of interest and effort on research in several areas that are pointing the way to a new direction in primary-grade reading programs. The educators' interest and investigations in the areas of (1) methodology and materials of instruction in the first grade studies, (2) the early identification of reading problems, and (3) the language development of children hold promise in terms of preventing reading problems where previously there has been a high incidence of the needless devastation of American youth by inappropriate and thereby ineffective developmental reading instruction.

This paper will examine several programs that took a new look at children in the primary grades which resulted in a 'new look' in the reading curriculum. These reading programs are in elementary schools in systems only recently fully integrated and most with large percentages of children from low socio-economic backgrounds. The faculties of these schools have been concerned about providing effective learning environments for these children. Teachers reported increasing dissatisfaction with the traditional reading programs of first grade as being inappropriate for the children in their classes. Further concern was voiced that these children also were not ready for the usual activities of second-grade reading programs. In this setting with these concerns the faculties undertook major overhauling of their reading programs for the primary grades.

From examination of the professional literature, coupled with their own experiences with children, the teachers found a new direction for their primary-grade reading programs as well as more effective approaches for intermediate-grade reading activities. The teachers were stimulated by psychologists' studies in the areas of cognitive development and the acquisition of language. They were interested.in the reports of linguists concerning the problems of learning to read by those with nonstandard dialects.

Interest was centered on the studies of the language patterns of children and adults from different socio-economic backgrounds.[1] Insight was gained into the mass-produced reading problems of ghetto and rural poverty-area children. The restrictive language patterns of the lower classes were in sharp contrast to the elaborative language patterns of the middle class. Further studies by Stewart[2] into nonstandard dialect patterns provided additional dimension to the nature of the problem of these children in learning to read. Such studies verified the need to relate material to be read to the experiences and langauge of the reader.

The teachers found the definition of cognitive structure by Bruner[3] and Piaget[4] of particular import. Understanding the stages of cognitive development helped the teachers to appreciate the necessity of providing an invariant schema with multi-sensory experiences prior to presenting two-dimensional pictures of concepts and then only moving on to presenting word symbols of these concepts.

Such studies verified the need for these teachers to focus on language development prior to expecting their children to handle traditional readiness tasks. Rather than redefine and revise the readiness programs the faculties decided to label the revision in their reading programs as the Period of Language Development and set about building a curriculum appropriate to the concepts involved. The objective of the revisions was to restructure the learning environment to facilitate positive learning by providing manageable tasks for the children.

It was further determined to eliminate specific grade-level learning expectancy for the mastery of reading skills and to concentrate on moving children through the sequence of skills at their own rate. Basic objective of the programs, characterized by those of Q.I.P.,[5] were (1) to assist each child in reading his maximum level in reading, (2) to attempt to prevent the development of reading difficulties at an early age, and (3) to help children develop the ability to read many different types of material.

It is interesting to note that these programs developed in many forms within ungraded and traditionally graded classrooms. Teacher and children's aides were available for some of the programs. Some programs used learning centers. However, as the various faculties began to evaluate their reading instruction in terms of the basic objectives they consistently identified the need to (1) examine the basic process of language development and the overall reading skills sequence in order to know how to provide successful learning experiences in reading, and (2) become more proficient in evaluating daily classroom feedback during reading activities to determine specific skills needs of children. It is to the first point this paper is directed.

While the curriculum for the Period of Language Development included the same essential areas of the Readiness program—language development, auditory and visual discrimination, the main emphasis was on the first area. This type of program has become identified with Project Head Start. It was observed that while many children had been exposed to the Head Start Program, they still profited from full exposure to the Language Development curriculum of these schools so lacking were they in experiences and language development.

Because of the wide range of language development of the children the teachers became increasingly sensitive to feedback from the children's performance in language activities. Every effort was made to move each child through the sequence of skills at his own pace.

After working with these children for a period of time it was found some children need as long as the first year in school to acquire experiences and oral language skills before moving on to the more traditional readiness activities. For some children the readiness program extended well into the second year before beginning reading was attempted.

Activities in the Language Development Programs focused on building experiences and attaching oral language to these experiences through the many materials available today. Language development kits, field trips, talking animals, role playing, creative dramatics were among the materials and methods used. Language experience stories were utilized simply to introduce the concept that words are talk written down. What surprised many teachers was the necessity of developing body awareness and providing experience in the visual perception areas. Some of these programs sought to include parents in order to develop communication channels with their children. It was found that many parents were lacking in such experiences as having been to a zoo or having used an escalator. It was reported that the parents were more excited than the children. All programs sought to encourage oral language skills of the children. The language patterns of the home were accepted in the classroom. Pressure toward standard English was minimized.

Readiness activities were presented with keener awareness of the necessity of taking the smallest of steps within the sequences of auditory and visual discrimination and providing as much work as needed at a given step. It was realized many children needed more activities designed for a particular phase in the sequence of skills than was available in a typical readiness workbook. Some faculties moved to the use of learning or activity centers to provide reinforcement of readiness skills. One might find a center with a **Can We Hear?** theme, a **Can We See?** theme, or **Where Does It Belong?** theme. Activities at these centers focused on phonics elements, their graphic elements, and vocabulary concepts through categorizing. The range of activities was limited only by the creativeness of the faculty. Teachers shared activities they designed. In some schools the faculty developed a material pool for building activities such as collections of pictures for initial or final position sounds and for grouping into classifications.

The use of the language experience stories was particularly appropriate for these children. Building from their own experiences and language patterns it was possible to move some children more quickly into dealing with graphic presentations of words than had they been expected to read the more traditional materials. Emphasis was also placed on writing their own stories. However, those severely handicapped in language development were not ready to write their own stories until well into second grade. In one program language experience stories were built from social studies and science activities in addition to those from the personal experiences of children.

The programs likewise emphasized the comprehension skills of inference and critical evaluation in addition to the skills more frequently focused upon. When language experience stories are built from the experiences of children these areas of comprehension were natural outcomes of the reading process.

From the point when the children move into reading the more traditional materials as basal readers and textbooks there is a continued emphasis on language development by presenting concepts through real experiences or pictorial presentations prior to dealing with word symbols. There is far less dependence on verbalism in introducing new unit concepts or new ideas in directed reading activities.

The most rewarding aspect of these programs has been to observe the children as they move through these programs and to see their positive attitude towards school and their interest in learning. These children are not the sullen children of the past marking time in the classroom. They are active learners. They are confident, secure, outgoing, excited, and insatiably curious. They are learning and they know it. Teachers are losing their guilt feeling about not having Johnny in a certain book by a certain time. And so often it was just that—Johnny 'in a book,' not the book 'in Johnny.'

But there are problems in such programs. One of the major concerns is the matter of reporting progress to parents who have been conditioned to grade level assesssment rather than specific skills achievement. Much work has had to be done to revise reporting systems and to work with parents to see the value of such revisions.

The second important concern is the evaluation of the merit of such programs emphasizing language development. Standardized tests in reading achievement do not reflect factors as concept of self as learners, oral language development, the vocabulary acquired by these children, or the interest and enthusiasm for learning.

The author is presently working with the faculty of one of these programs to develop some appropriate tools for evaluating such programs. The focus is on developing instruments that may be used in correlation with standardized tests to evaluate aspects of the program which are not now reflected in the reading tests. Evaluation tools are being developed in the areas of self concept as a learner, oral language skills, writing skills, and sight vocabularly.

But these programs emphasizing language development are being looked upon by those involved as providing success in learning to read for more children than ever before. It is indicated from teacher reaction and observation of student behavior that these programs warrant an attempt to evaluate their effectiveness with measures that can give statistical evidence verifying their value.

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THE VOICE OF AUTHORITY FALLACY AND PHONICS INSTRUCTION

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Some pronouncements made about teaching phonics by experts have been accorded a sanctity and a reverence out of proportion to their value. When these **ex cathedra** statements are scrutinized they are found to contain unproved information, half-truths, or misinformation. I should like to consider some of these statements.

(a) **There is a best method of teaching phonics.** There isn't a shred of evidence to substantiate this statement. The order in which certain consonants and vowels are introduced and the mode of presentation differ according to what approach is being used. Depending on who is making the assertion, a particular approach will be invested with an aura of superiority. Thus Gillingham, Spalding and Carden would no doubt aver that synthetic phonics is the "right" approach—that this approach is a more rational approach in attacking words than the analytic approach espoused by the basal reader editors (not Lippincott). Still others would argue that an analytic-synthetic approach is superior. Others, including myself, would be in favor of an eclectic approach. It should be noted that despite the assertions by exponents of various approaches attesting to their superiority, all promoters claim their brand produces good results and these merchandisers usually offer some evidence to back up their claims. I might say that I have seldom, if ever, had unanimity of opinion among my graduate students who are teachers regarding the superiority of a particular method. Almost invariably teachers take a pro and con position regarding various phonic approaches. Perhaps it is appropriate to say that it is not the method or approach that one uses that is the crucial factor, but it is what one does with that approach or method that really counts.

(b) **Attacking a word's pronounciation in any but a left-to-right direction will interfere with correct eye movements and result in faulty perception.** This statement is probably based upon the observation that many retarded readers make regressions, reversals, omissions and substitutions when reading. Actually it may be desirable for large numbers of retarded readers to learn to attack a visually unfamiliar word pattern in different ways. Those tending to omit or confuse endings but who are proficient in initial consonant recognition should be conditioned to pay more attention to suffixes. Those who lose confidence when they see a long word perhaps would be a little less frightened if they framed the initial and final parts of words simultaneously. For those children who seldom err with respect to the initial and final parts of words the center of instruction should shift to the medial vowel.

Often poor readers misread words which look alike because they ignore the sound of the medial vowel elements. Thus "pit" is misread "pet", "green" becomes "grin", "crow" is confused with "corn". I have found that if students are taught to say the vowel element before anything else and then to listen to the sound of that element they are less likely to make medial vowel errors. The important information that teachers using this approach must impart is that even though the student first says the vowel sound, its position in the word will dictate the order in which it is heard. Thus in deciphering "pet" the child says e (to "tune in" to the sound he must hear when he pronounces this word) but this sound is in the middle of the word or in the second position. A consonant letter sound "p" must be heard before "e" and the consonant letter sound of "t" must be heard at the end of the word. The blending of the various sounds may be accomplished in various ways.

(c) Phonics teaching should be postponed until the child has a basic sight vocabulary which contain those phonetic elements that are to be taught. This statement has wide acceptance particularly because many basal readers use this formula. But there are many independent code-emphasis from-the-beginning of reading programs. (Words in Color, Mazurkiewicz-Tanner ITA, Phonovisual method, and Lippincott's phonic program) which are at variance with this point of view. Any observant parent or teacher knows that many pre school children catch phonics on the fly from listening to TV ad slogans and jingles and nursery rhymes.

Again there is no research evidence to indicate that if phonics teaching follows the principles in statement (c) that teaching will result in better achievement than if instruction were to proceed according to the tenets of various phonics-first programs. As a matter of fact, what evidence wo do now possess from the first and second grade studies (USOE) favors the latter approach as a beginning reading technique.

(d) The rule: **"When there are two vowels side by side, the long sound of the first one is heard and the second one is usually silent has only 45 percent of utility and consequently is of limited value."** The author of this statement (paraphrased) examined four sets of basals widely used in the primary grades and found 309 words conforming to this generalization and 377 non conforming words. Had the study examined upper elementary and intermediate grade words instead of primary grade words the results might have been somewhat different. A study of Anna Cordts of children's vocabulary shows that with each successive level of reading the relative number of phonetic words increases from 20 per cent at the preprimer level to more than 80 per cent on the sixth grade level. (See **An Analysis and Classification of the Sounds in the Children's Reading Vocabulary in Grades 1-3**, unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Iowa and **a Study of the Reading Vocabulary, Grades 4-6** both authored by Anna Cordts.) I will not quibble over statistics. The important point to remember about the utility of a particular phonics generalization is that its utility is considerably enhanced by the context in which the word occurs. This is the real test and I dare say that if in the study previously alluded to consideration were given to this factor, the per cent of utility would be considerably higher. But the study loses sight of another fact—phonics is not always an open sesame to a word's pronounciation. Phonics does, however, provide a handle to gradually opening up the door of a word's pronunciation. Its main purpose is to help the decoder to come near enough to a word's pronunciation so that with some manipulation and contextual or structural analysis clue that word is brought to the threshold of the decoder's recognition.

(e) **"Word analysis skills should be taught only during spelling and writing periods because they are not reading skills"** is a statement that has the power of authority behind it. Nevertheless, it represents opinion not fact. One can dispute this statement as I shall attempt to do. When word analysis skills are taught as encoding skills they are probably better taught in a separate writing period. But if the focus is on decoding the printed or the written word, practice should take place in the context in which it will be most frequently used—during oral and silent reading periods. This is the most natural setting for applications of decoding skills. Reading does after all involve a translation of the printed symbol into its sound equivalent. This progression is from print to speech not vice versa as is the case with spelling and writing. Now of course in order to be able to transcribe the printed symbol into its auditory equivalent one must have preliminary work in hearing separate sounds and discriminating these sounds from each other. The foundation work is in auditory discrimination. This may involve learning to listen to similar and dissimilar phonemes and even learning to write or to recognize the symbol that stands for a particular sound (encoding) as well as learning to say the sound that stands for the letter (decoding). In other words during the pre reading and readiness stage of a child's development encoding and decoding and phonic and phonetic activities are almost inextricably woven together. At these stages of development statement (c) is more defensible.

I feel that exponents of the point of view expressed by statement (e) are guilty of egocentricity and shortsightedness. I have taught reading to ghetto youth by means of a writing-spelling approach and can state that the results were negative. I do not mean to imply that the youngsters didn't learn by this approach. Some did. But such an approach was devoid of dramatic interest for student and teacher. Worst of all, this approach proved to be distasteful and frustrating to these linguistically deficient youngsters. The approach that was subsequently used, one that had better results, was a listening-speaking-reading-writing progression. Word analysis skills were most frequently taught in connection with material read in class. During the reading period in intermediate and upper grades I observed that these children subsequent to preliminary and post discussions of materials read in class, including explanations of difficult words and concepts and explanations of various word analysis techniques, were better able to write the answers to questions based upon the stories read and that the activity of writing following the reading-discussion phase promoted superior application of word recognition techniques.

I have tried to present a few arguments against the wholesale acceptance of dogmatic statements. If teachers are to avoid some of the pitfalls of teaching phonics, they must be open minded, flexible and willing to try new things.

LANGUAGE BARRIERS OF THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT

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Who are the culturally different or disadvantaged? Why is their education a special problem, and in particular, how are their differences in communication with the middle class culture related to methods for their instruction in reading?

Like any broad generalization or group statistic, the term "culturally disadvantaged" does not really describe for me the real Ruth or Sarah or Leviticus or any other of the junior high school pupils whom I teach in one of Columbia's poverty areas. They each have their own separate needs, drives and interests as surely as to students from affluent homes. The category "disadvantaged" is no more specifically meaningful for detailed selection of methods and materials for a given lesson than is the term "affluent". I still must test and teach, evaluate and experiment, and build in painstaking stages a profile of Ruth's or Sarah's behavior that is related to learning to read. What the general category tells me is that certain characteristics are more likely to be present with these pupils than with another selected population; but which of these characteristics are actually present or whether even, if present, they can be considered an educational disadvantage must be determined individually.

One of the general characteristics common to many of the culturally different are the significant linguistic differences between their speech patterns and the standard English of the middle class. Surely language represents the humanizing element that makes true intimacy between one another possible, but because this is so, language differences have a way of separating and alienating as well as the opposite. Therefore, I should like to develop the next few remarks around the general topics of language, the culturally different, and reading, attempting to suggest the rationale that language being what it is, language patterns may act as a significant restriction to reading achievement unless certain basic principles about the language-reading relationship are considered during reading instruction.

Because much that has been said about language or speech comes from the linguists, I shall borrow from them rather heavily in the next few statements. According to Lefevre, "Language forms a network, a continuous webbing indissolubly linking inner man, his thoughts and emotions with other events, actions, sanctions, social groups and institutions." He continues his discourse about language as an interactive process by suggesting that "thought at higher levels is inconceivable without a prior development of both the audio-lingual and manual-visual systems of language."[1]

Alexander Johnson in a **Treatise on Language** indicates the interdependence between the words of language, experience, and reading. "Words," he says, "can refer us to sensible information which we have experienced; but they cannot reveal to us what we have not experienced."[2] Reading, he continues, is the mental process of reconstructing the experiences behind language.

Vera John and Leo Goldstein, writing on the social context of language acquisition, describe how a child of the middle class acquires a spoken language through feedback and correction of his own active speech. The culturally disadvantaged, on the other hand, learns his language by receptive exposure, without the operant control of feedback. Language, to him, will have little use as a mediator in interpersonal behavior.[3] This restriction through passive exposure without feedback is also pertinent to the culturally disadvantaged and their world of experience. Without guided perception of the things which he has experienced, or verbal manipulation of ideas about his experience, very little in terms of a significant body of meanings or concepts can be accumulated.[4]

Piaget would disagree with the idea that language and thought can be explained by one another. Thought, according to Piaget, derives from the abstraction of one's own action upon things; language is an imitation of patterns provided by adults. However, Piaget does suggest that the relationship is one of a tool or handmaiden, rather than that one is the master of the other. "Language facilitates the expansion of thought and adds to its mobility."[5] From a practical point of view, there is some significance in this difference. If language is deceptive in relation to thought, then "teachers of middle class children (may be) often misled by the verbal facility of (their) youngsters into believing that they understand more than they actually comprehend." And on the other hand, "the teachers of the (culturally different) are often fooled by the language handicaps of these children into thinking that they are much more (thought handicapped) than they actually are."[6] This point of view expresses once again the individual dynamics at work, whatever the general classification of the student.

The preceding comments from language specialists have indicated the interdependence between language, operant feedback, thought, and experience, and the power of these functions to reconstruct and reassociate through reading. It is directly in line with these functions that the culturally different person may also be educationally disadvantaged as he is confronted by the world of the middle class. What is this language like? While this question is an exceedingly technical one, differing from group to group, some fairly general observations may be pertinent. First of all, just because a person speaks with a dialect or accent does not mean that the difference is educationally handicapping. The syntactical and grammatical level of the person's native language or dialect may be used as a present potential for language facility in the adopted culture, for the rules under which the native language operates transfer from one mode to another with relatively little difficulty. For a person who has not developed a complex syntactical or grammatical fluency in his first language, little transfer can take place, and attempts to educate through the second language will find difficulty.

There are other facets of a language difference that are more than the linguistic: they are the far reaching effects in the total adjustment of the individual, maintaining a wall of separation btween him and the world into which he is thrust. How does the culturally different relate to the middle class world of Dick and Jane and all the other characters of the middle class Anglo-Saxon story books? To begin with, he has had few experiences with toys, pictures, books, or magazines and few if any of the other common denominators of middle class life. Very little spoken language has passed between him and his parents. He possesses strong negative feelings concerning his personal worth and devalues himself as a student. He has moved from school to school and from failure to failure. He has not learned to communicate, especially with the middle class, developing instead fears and suspicions of their way of life. Which cues he responds to, how he will respond, and what his responses will be are learned reactions from a totally different environment than the school offers. These differences are seen as points of exclusion between him and the middle class. This whole process of exclusion, based in significant part on linguistic separation, helps to set a self-concept that has a higher correlation to achievement than do so-called measurements.[7] This self-concept is based on at least two factors: the expectations one's society and peers have for him and the kinds of behavior patterns which the individual himself selects as a "style of life," which helps determine what he will see and hear, think and say, remember and forget. "Any value which is inconsistent with the individual's valuation of himself cannot be assimilated: it meets with resistance and is likely, unless a general reorganization occurs, to be rejected."[8]

The typical classroom, whose power structure is geared to middle class speech patterns, likely places this linguistically different student with a style of life quite different from theirs in a special grouping with the stated purpose of more adequately attending to his needs. Studies by both Meyerowitz (1968) and Goffman indicate that special placement, instead of helping a pupil adjust, actually hinders him. Putting such a pupil in a "slow" or otherwise labeled class probably contributes significantly to his feelings of inferiority and likely creates lowered expectations on the part of the teacher also. Lloyd Dunn of George Peabody College for Teachers contends that much of such grouping simply creates labels rather than helping to emphasize a daily positive formulation of teaching and learning methods immediately relevant to the student. Added to this physical exclusion are too often found intolerance, rigidity, strict discipline, and even physical force meted out by the teacher. One of the major problems that we have already pointed out is that the student does not come with a built-in feeling of relatedness to the classroom, and surely these actions do nothing to lessen his feelings of rejection. Sol Tax, speaking at the 1968 Claremont Reading Conference on this topic, stated that the reading and writing of the classroom must reflect the identity of the learner, and to the extent that they do not they are discarded. He discussed the interesting history of the Cherokees of Georgia as an illustration of this point. Because I am not elsewhere familiar with this history, I will paraphrase it from Sol Tax. The Cherokees became literate within three years after Sequoia invented written symbols for their language in the early 1800's. They introduced their own printing presses and evolved a literate culture. They were then forceably moved to Oklahoma where they built seminaries, teaching Greek and Latin for the first time in any school west of the Mississippi. In 1900, Oklahoma became a state and the Indians were forced to learn by the white man's methods. Today, the Cherokees are the poorest and the least educated Indians in Oklahoma.[9] Many other selections from the literature indicate the importance of using the learner's language. Walter Loban, writing for **Elementary English**, stresses that the language the child brings should be fostered as a means of thinking, exploring, and imagining, helping the student to develop and amplify his own language to the full range of his linguistic potential.[10] James Flemming, writing for the **Reading Teacher** in October, 1968, also emphasizes the point that reading instruction should not be a test of a match in pronunciation between the student and teacher, but that differences in pronunciation, even substitutions of words, should be seen as differing from mistakes in reading. To understand if the student has made a correct transliteration between the print of the book and his own linguistic system, the teacher will need to understand the student's language, including his grammar and homonyms. Mark Weiss, a graduate student at the University of South Carolina, is presently involved with a research study in an attempt to teach teachers the language of particular dialectic groups of students. His technique is to tape-record and video-tape the language of children from particular dialect groupings in both play and classroom activities. After a linguist has evaluated and interpreted the tapes, he will use them as a basis for teacher in-service training workshops. The workshops will include not only intensive and directed listening on the part of teachers, but they will be expected to be able to use the dialect with at least a passing acquaintance themselves. The question should be raised, and indeed the literature in general seems to suggest that the teacher's role is finally to help bring about a second language for the language different student. But in this the teacher must act as a model, not as a speech corrector. While the literature suggests that a move toward a second language must start fairly early in the elementary grades before sensitivity to new sounds is lost, Lefevre states that "if a dialect change is to be effected, it must be done finally on the initiative of the child himself."[11]

Assuming the ideal that the teacher has learned the language of the student, the teacher must have yet another change of heart or practice from the typical classroom. According to Ned Flanders, the teacher habitually dominates the interactive opportunities of the classroom by his own speech. About 66 per cent of the time of the class is directed to talking, about 66 per cent of this talk is done by the teacher, and about 66 per cent of the teacher's talk is directive. If the student is to learn how to interact and to communicate within the classroom, this ratio is going to have to change. Carlton and Moore at the Illinois State University have published an interesting study in which they attempted this change through a self-directive dramatization of stories. Self-directive dramatization refers to the pupil's original, imaginative, spontaneous interpretation of a character of his own choosing in a story which he selects and reads cooperatively with other pupils in a group which is formed only for the time being and for a particular story. Because self-selection of stories is involved, many books on many levels and varieties are made available at all times in the classroom. Comparisons of classes after the experimental period indicated significant changes in both self-concept and reading behavior in favor of the experimental groups over the traditionally taught basal reader groups. In fact, the dramatization groups indicated more than a year's growth in reading in three and a half months.[12]

Perhaps there is no better way to bring together the student's experiences, language, thought, feedback, and reading than through the language experience approach. Sylvia Ashton-Warner describes in her book **Teacher** her method of building all the language arts from an organic vocabulary. It is organic because it springs from the innermost recesses of the child's inner self, expressing his fears and desires. These first words are the bridge from the known to the unknown and from the inner man out. They are word pictures that have power, for they represent the child's inner vision. They have intense meaning, for they are a part of the thought processes of the child himself. And thus Sylvia Ashton-Warner builds the skills of reading and writing around the words of fear and love and sex that make up the lives of the Maori children within her classroom. Her system is in relation to the beginning reader, but the process is meaningful at any age. Experience approaches to learning can be initiated through television viewing, movies, the comics, or any other type of media. Comparisons of plot, structure, setting, staging, dialogue, special effects, character development, thematic content, and much more can be developed from a common viewing experience. Other followup activities may be group discussions, supplementary readings, oral readings of a similar setting or theme, and so forth.

These suggestions have been illustrative and not in any sense inclusive of techniques for working with children with language differences. They have meant to illustrate the kinds of things that teachers can do to capitalize on the strengths that the student brings with him to the classroom. We have also meant to indicate that the student or the group must at times at least be the power variable psychologically within the classroom: it need not always be the teacher. Role playing, activities growing out of language experience approaches, and the like, can help bring together parts of both worlds—the world of the student and the world of the classroom. The student's perceptions from his environment are not interpreted as grostesque but are superimposed upon the adopted culture, creating at least a modicum of integrity for him within the capabilities of his own psychological system. Further, these activities have indicated interdependence between language, operant feedback, thought, and experience, and the power of these to reconstruct and reassociate through reading.

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EFFECTIVE INSERVICE PROGRAMS

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The prolific development of new methods and materials for educating today's children has created a dilemma for the classroom teacher. Trapped between a desire to keep abreast of the newer techniques and a need to prepare for the classroom each day, the average teacher finds the day too short for achieving both goals. Thus the conscientious teacher often must give up professional improvement for the sake of her classes.

The problem of the rural teacher is further complicated by geographical isolation. Many teachers are hundreds of miles from the

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nearest library or university offering graduate courses. Although thousands attend graduate evening classes or enroll on campuses for summer courses, a large percentage of teachers because of responsibilities at home, lack of money, or other legitimate reasons are unable to leave their local regions. These teachers have not changed their basic patterns of teaching since receiving their undergraduate degrees, nor will they make such changes unless wise administrators bring to them proper motivation and opportunity.

Whether or not educators are changing, children and society are. No longer do the rural children remain in their isolated communities. By the tens of thousands their parents, drawn by the lures of television and other mass communication devices, have migrated to the larger cities of Cincinnati, Chicago, Cleveland and New York to seek the promises of higher wages and better employment. Approximately 40,000 Kentuckians, for example, have migrated to 120 Chicago city block. Recent stories, articles, books and films have documented the sorry plight of the rural child in the schools of the larger cities. His "strange" language pattern, his quiet, withdrawn personality, and his lack of motivation for academic achievement isolate him in the city as effectively as the geography isolated him at home. In short, whether the rural child remains at home or migrates to the city, he finds schools difficult and his opportunities for later employment limited. Since the academic level of the rural child's home may be low, he is especially dependent upon the school for an improvement in his educational level and his employment opportunities.

The rural teacher's colleague in the heart of the larger cities may feel as isolated from educational improvement as does the rural teacher. Centralization of administrative responsibilities in an office far removed from the classrooms, a desire to leave the building after an exhausting day of teaching, and perhaps even a transportation problem because of heavy traffic create an environment not conducive to continuous professional growth.

Research studies, exploring the effects of various methods, materials and approaches on academic achievement, have all emphasized that the one variable having greatest influence on a child's achievement is his teacher. More effective methods can be developed, better materials produced, and more modern buildings designed, but the skill of the teacher remains the major factor in the child's achievement. The improvement of educational opportunities for disadvantaged children is, therefore, dependent upon effective inservice education programs for the teachers and other school personnel.

An investigation and analysis of several inservice education programs indicated that there are common characteristics present in the most effective programs. The purpose of this report is to generalize from first hand visits and the evaluation reports of several inservice programs throughout the United States and to present some of the common characteristics that helped to assure their success.

One of the first steps in the organization of effective inservice programs has been a survey of the school system or building's specific strengths and weaknesses. After a study group composed of administrators and teachers had located areas of greatest need and established priorities for remediation, a program was organized for a specific group of teachers and developed around their strengths, weaknesses, interests, and idiosyncrasies. The specific teaching responsibilities of the primary teachers, for example, are sufficiently different from those of the upper grade teachers to justify the development of a program especially for them. Experienced teachers are particularly interested in their own rooms and in how to improve themselves. They are less interested in grades or subjects not their immediate concern. The most effective programs were developed for a particular group of teachers and their specific needs or interests.

Other educational personnel who directly influenced a teacher's ability to provide children with adequate learning experiences were included in the program. Principals, librarians, and school social workers, for example, directly help or hinder teachers in the improvement of reading skills. If a program was organized for diagnosis of reading problems, the school psychologists, guidance counselor, and speech therapist were included. In most instances the principals and supervisors actively participated in the determination of needs, and perhaps more important, they were active learners in experiences of the inservice programs.

Although both general and specific objectives were defined prior to the establishment of programs, many groups felt it necessary to clarify the objectives as one of their first experiences. Objectives were analyzed in relation to the backgrounds of the participants and, if necessary, re-stated by each individual as they applied to his own idiosyncrasies.

Defining behavioral objectives and the need to specify objectives in terms of observable behavior was the major goal of a few programs. Objective and subjective evaluative instruments were constructed. Several groups expressed difficulty in providing for effective behavioral observations to evaluate attitude changes which may have been a major objective of the program.

Effective programs were intensive and concentrated upon the meeting of specific objectives. Those programs that seemed to have met their objectives were organized for a time when the participants were able to learn without the concern of their responsibilities at home and school. Although programs using one evening a week after school, Saturday mornings, the week before school begins in the fall, or other limited schedules may be effective for teachers who have had opportunities in the past for professional improvement, considerable professional growth was obvious when the program was six to eight weeks in length and the participants were present for a full day. The programs were organized, therefore, during the summer months or released time in the school year. The teaching responsibilities of some remedial or other special teachers did not begin the first day of the fall term. The month of September or the first few weeks of school were utilized for concentrated inservice activities.

Whenever a program was shorter in length of time or held after school, the objectives were limited to those that were easily met or the activities were dove-tailed with the regular educator's responsibilities.

Multiple short term workshops were conducted to demonstrate the use of new audio-visual instruments. The participants may have met a specific objective concerning the manipulation of an instrument's mechanical aspects. Less sophisticated educators, however, need more than a few days to analyze the application and influence of the new technique or instrument to a child's total learning environment.

Programs employing a variety of experiences were judged effective by participants. The experiences included lectures, presentations, seminars, small group discussions, role playing, and visits to locations of interest. It was significant that in all programs the participants were actively involved in the learning process. They were not passively sitting and listening to lectures. They were producing and evaluating materials, planning and conducting action research, using video tape recorders or other means of simulating activities for their own observation and evaluation. Some were constructing model curricula or having practicum experiences with a limited number of children. Groups of children were often provided for trying out new techniques and materials. Although the children may have profited from their roles in the program, they were present for the benefit of the participants. Being responsible for a large number of children every day would have limited the participant's opportunities for a variety of learning experiences. The stereotype college summer school with its lectures, library study time, research papers, and exams were not the typical structure for innovative programs.

Programs were not simply organized for the participants. Outside consultants, college professors, publisher representatives, and local participants were involved in the initiation and development of the programs. In some instances colleges sent their professors to live and work in the community with the participants. Participants traveled to commercial locations to study products first hand. Publisher representatives provided authors, displays, and valuable know how. Parent and community involvement was evident. Federal and municipal agencies cooperated or were actively involved. Attempts were often made to coordinate all the identifiable services available to children. Local service clubs, communication personnel, and businessmen were involved. School systems are not islands unto themselves; neither were the programs conducted in isolation wards.

Business and industry have long considered it important to provide paid released time to their employees or overtime pay for on the job training. Business trips, conference, retreats, and well planned inservice activities have enabled the commercial world to keep abreast of new developments. That the commercial employer must provide the expenses for inservice education is not usually questioned.

Since the advent of NDEA institutes and ESEA programs, educators have begun to provide opportunities for inservice training without loss of salary or money spent for expenses. Many of the effective programs provided stipends, dependency allowances, or full salary while the participants were involved. Although college credit was given to participants in many instances, they also were able to learn without the financial concern of giving up a summer's salary.

Multi-disciplinary approaches were evident. Linguists, sociologists and educators combined their resources for more effective programs. Physicians met with neurologists and reading diagnosticians to study dyslexia. Engineers and audio-visual specialists worked with curriculum experts to explore ideas for individualizing instruction through automated instructional devices. The sharing and evaluating of knowledge from several different disciplines gave the participants greater opportunities for new and different insights.

Evaluation procedures were continuous and concretely aware of the program's objectives. Independent evaluation teams were involved at the time of defining objectives. Some were even employed to aid in the establishment of needs prior to the inservice program's development. There seems to be a trend for an independent evaluation team to become actively involved at all stages of the initiation and development of a program. Participants and directors of programs received continuous feedback concerning ways for the immediate changes rather than "grading" after its completion. Long range goals and follow-up evaluation procedures were often provided. Effects of the programs on later classroom instruction were evaluated. Changes of attitudes or feeling toward self, children, and peers were analyzed. Both objective and subjective measures were utilized. When instruments were not available, inventories, questionnaires, and techniques were developed.

If an inservice program is effective, the participants will be anxious to improve their procedures to keep pace with their changes in attitudes and knowledge of new methods, materials, and techniques. Effective programs, therefore, provided that materials and teaching aids studied in the program were immediately available for the participants' on the job use. New grouping or individualization procedures were permitted and encouraged by local administrators. Several programs purchased enough new materials for later classroom use. There is probably nothing more frustrating to teachers than, after learning better teaching techniques and the use of new materials or instruments, to be unable to try the new methods in their own classrooms because of limited funds for effective implementation. Equally frustrating for a teacher is to change attitudes conducive to educational improvement but be required to adhere to an administrator's dictates who was not involved in the inservice program.

Abstract

UNIVERSITY AND PUBLIC SCHOOL COOPERATIVE INSERVICE PROGRAMS

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This paper presents the current trends of the College of Education at Appalachian State University in dealing with reading instruction in the public schools throughout North Carolina and adjoining states. The paper outlines:

1. Summer Programs in Reading
2. On-the-job Extension Courses
3. Clinical on-the-job Extension Courses
4. Future Plans of the Inservice Programs

IMPLICATIONS OF EARLY STIMULATION FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN READING

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For the past four years the Research and Development Center in Educational Stimulation at the University of Georgia has been attempting to determine whether new norms for achievement in school subject areas can be achieved by a structured curriculum presented to children beginning at age three and continuing onward through age twelve. The first year was a planning year, but in the fall of 1966 one hundred eighty children were selected to start school at ages three, four, and five. In 1967, sixty additional three year olds were enrolled. These children attend The Lillian E. Suder School in Clayton County (suburban Atlanta), Georgia. They are a stratified sample chosen to represent our nation's population in three factors: race, socio-economic status, and intelligence.

During these last three years the Language Arts staff of the Research and Development Center have been constructing curricula for young children and field testing teaching procedures for enhancing their learning. It is not our purpose to prove that children should be taught in public schools at age three, nor is it our purpose to disprove the value of early stimulation. Instead we hope to learn better ways of teachcing beginners to read regardless of how weak their backgrounds or how few their antecedent experiences are. For a program such as this three-year-olds are ideal.

The things we have learned about teachers, and about the delivery of information to children, cannot be dignified by being stated as the results of careful research. Instead, they are the results of the observations and impressions built up during three years of continuous interaction with teachers in and out of the classrooms where very young children are being taught.

Our most significant observation is that confronting teachers with printed materials appears to be far more effective for instruction than does a formal or informal oral presentation to them. Our teachers teach best when provided with detailed printed curricula.

The curricula now in use include daily lesson plans. However, it does not appear to be the lesson plans themselves, nor the sequence in which they are presented, which accounts for the effectiveness of the printed curricula. Instead, it appears that stating precise and extremely small instructional goals accounts for the success we have had with our reading program. For example, two of the extremely small steps or goals in our program are (1) to teach children to discriminate what a spoken word is—this is obviously a necessity for learning that one printed word represents one spoken word; and (2) to teach children that pages are turned from right to left, and that once opened, a book's left hand pages are to be observed before the right hand pages.

It seems to us that directing the teachers' attention to such minute fragments of the total goal, learning to read, is extremely potent as a means for influencing teacher behavior and enhancing students' learning.

Another thing we have learned is that there may not be such a thing as an attention span. Attention varies widely from activity to activity in any one child. Children as young as two years and nine months will stay at an activity for more than an hour if they find that activity challenging. It appears that the reason adults have claimed that young children have short attention spans is that young children have not learned to act out the lie (or to pretend to pay attention) that older children and adults have learned.

We have learned that teachers should not be told that young children need to sit still and be quiet in order to learn. Those who attend best are the children who are involved in a lesson which causes them to stand up, move around, and talk frequently.

To learn to write, the children were presented with many different forms on the black-board, and they could copy something on paper when the thing to be copied was immediately next to the paper to be copied on. We have tried several alternate explanations for this phenomenon and are now checking them out carefully. Perhaps some implications for teacher education will come from this.

In our attempts with early stimulation in school learning we have tried many novel (to the children) stimuli. Among these are puppets, tape recorders, flannel boards, over-head projectors, trade books and instructional printed cards. At first the novelty is so powerful that the children pay more attention to it than they do to the information which it is being used to present. We have learned that we must desensitize the children to the new stimulus before we use it as a teaching tool.

Finally, we have learned that children acquiring academic skills earlier than the ordinary tend to be snobbish about what they have learned. If there are no printed words in the books that the children are handed, they remark that the books are "baby stuff." Consequently, once the children's academic abilities have been changed, the materials for their future education must be chosen with great care.

In summary, we have learned through our observations of the teaching of young children that the most effective way of educating their teachers is through the use of printed materials containing behaviorally stated sequences of finite goals. We have come to believe that children learn best when the lessons call for physical action on the part of each child. We have learned that motivational devices can elicit so much interest that they are ineffective in the development of interest in the more mundane information which the device is being used to present. We have learned that children resent being treated like babies when they are not. In fact, when the tasks presented to young children are within their capabilities and of high intrinsic interest, the children enjoy working at them for long periods of time. Perhaps teachers need to learn that learning can be fun.

WHY SHOULD I READ?

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The question: "Why Should I Read?" may seem inappropriate to this group, a professional group of educators who have devoted years to organizing reading environments and judiciously manipulating them so that those under their tutelage will have progressed a little further toward maturity in reading skills. To the members of our affluent society, a society that presumably is a reading society when we consider the total product of our printing presses, this same question may also be out of time and place—almost an anachronism. Not only has the adult with meager linguistic skills pondered this query, but the child who is able to use the tape recorder, the radio and T.V., and other auditory aids to gather information, to resolve conflicts, or to answer questions, has faced the dilemma: To Read or Not to Read. But on the other side of the coin, who among us has not, on many occasions, selected a book, retreated into a world of his own, and for a period of time, possessed himself with a full measure of quietness?

Thus, all of us have employed the art of reading for many purposes, running the gamut from seeking answers to such mundane questions as: "When does the next bus leave for downtown?" to bibliotherapy when wishing to harmonize emotions or seeking succor.

It has been said that the age of miracles is over—they do not happen any more. Yet, is it not a miracle when man has acquired a language facility which enables him to communicate with renowned scholars, the great thinkers, the poets, the dreamers, the revered religious leaders, the dedicated humanists, past and present? Have you not witnessed the sudden change that takes place when a child has found a book that fits and upon reading it has walked with a lighter step, his spirits buoyed to a new level; and for a period of time, all is right? And you, in like manner, at the close of the day when your intense thoughts are encircling you, closing in, making you your own prisoner, have you not turned to the literature of your choice, and having read, suddenly realized that your unvoiced prayers have been answered?

From among the many purposes of reading, I should like to select one, namely **To Better Appraise My Environment**, and explore it with you.

On several occasions, I have expressed the following points of view:[1]

> A major responsibility of the citizenry in a democratic society is to appraise the environment in which they live; to decide upon a course of action through logical reasoning; and then to apprise contemporaries of this decision of judgment. Upon this premise—that the communicative process is an essential characteristic of a democracy which demands of its citizens the ability to communicate effectively and with insight and critical analysis—it follows that reading, one of the facets of the total language spectrum, is and will remain, one of its most important and indispensable phases. Through reading, more than any other phase of communication, the responsible citizen can analyze a more varied and clear record of current and past events. Through reading, the perceptive citizen can ascertain the role the individual plays in his own social group, the community in the state, the state in the nation, the nation in world affairs and, during some morrow, the world in interplanetary litigations.

To attempt to convince you of the importance of reading in a democratic society would be akin to carrying coals to Newcastle or gilding the lily. Yet, reaffirmation has never dulled a belief of conviction.

"What is Reading?" The term is so much with us that its very profusion in the literature and in the conversation of those dedicated to the education of our children may lead some to underestimate its complexity. It could be assumed with reasonable confidence that definitions would run the complete range from the meaningless repetition of a line of print to perfect communication with an author. Some would say that whenever man reacts to or interprets all types of sensory stimulation, he is engaged in the art or skill of reading. Others would say that a person is not reading unless he reacts in a meaningful way to those graphic symbols we call words, and still others would say that the art or mental process of reading existed before language was developed or even before man was able to utter intelligible sounds, as when early man went to the mouth of his cave, observed the heavens, and sensed that inclement weather was imminent. Reading, however, became much more complex when man ultimately assigned squiggles to selected segments of his experience.

At this phase of my presentation, I am compelled to give an operational definition of reading and one which, hopefully, will serve as a matrix for a further discussion of, **Why Should I Read?**

> Reading is a central mental activity involving the higher intellectual processes in which there is a reorganization of experiences which have been evoked by some stimulus, or a unique sequence of stimuli such as graphic symbols, an object or a series of related objects, an event or a unique series of events, a relationship, etc. Or, to express it more concisely: Reading is the cognitive process of perceiving and ordering our environment. It is a psycho-motor process.

If I could, however, conjure up a definition of reading that would be universally accepted by all scholars, the College Reading Association could not afford my fee. Specifically, I have said that perceiving and reading are the same act. The perception of an object, event, situation, or a relationship includes the arousal of meaning; and by the same token, reading includes the arousal of meaning. Both are visual, auditory, and psycho-motor processes. One of the primary functions of reading (perceiving) is to acquire valid, well-organized and concise concepts. These generalizations are the main materials of the thinking process. They are long agrowing and are the end products of many experiences, both direct and vicarious.

The word **concept** is used rather freely by both professional and lay people. Many use it as a condiment to flavor their writing and speech. Perhaps, and because of its common use, it has lost its significance as the main ingredient of the thinking process. What are concepts? They have been defined in a variety of ways, but all of them seem to carry a common core. On the one hand, a person might say that concepts are the end product of inductive thinking in which the child abstracts from related experiences that which is relevant to the understanding of an idea previously obtained. They are generalizations based upon previous experiences and perhaps that which a person is experiencing at any given moment. Again, concepts may be defined as the cognitive organizing system which serve to bring pertinent features of past experiences to bear up a present stimulus or a unique sequences of stimuli. Concepts, then, are one means whereby present perceptions (percepts) are shaped by past experiences (images and memories). Concepts, therefore, are more or less stabilized percepts.[3] Concepts are built from percepts, images, and memories.

Again, I reiterate the theme of this presentation—"Why I Should Read!" The answer should be evident—so the concepts I build are clear, well-organized, and as complete as current percepts, images, and memories will permit. Thus, I will be able to make the most valid appraisal of my environment, the classroom, the professional organizations to which I belong, the social groups with which I am affiliated, the service organizations in which I hold membership. I should be able, therefore, to contribute significantly to these groups in a manner intended by my maker, and finally, I will have paid, in part at least, my personal debt to the society which begat me.

How are concepts formed? I do not wish to insult your intelligence. You have been helping students build valid concepts as long as you have been in the classroom. Remember the theme of this paper—"Why I Should Read!" In reality, therefore, I am talking to myself and am attempting to build a construct, a model of this complex, cognitive process.

Much like the thinking process or the mental act of comprehending the printed page, we have only shreds of evidence, partial answers to the above posed question. An obstacle blocks my way, I must use words to define words. This poses another question: What is a word? They are so much with us that their very profusion may lead to some invalid assumptions concerning their nature and use. One of these assumptions might be that the word is identical with the object or thing. Anyone who fails to perceive the symbolic relationship between words and reality is really saying that a description of a man is the man. Another way of stating this is to say that reality is reality and remains reality, regardless of the graphic symbols we use to describe it.

Words have no inherent meaning. There is no catness to the word cat; there is no cornyness to the word corn; and a rose would be just as beautiful and aromatic if called a gup. But you recognize as well as I that the sound gup is too harsh to represent a thing as beautiful as a rose.

It is important for us to remember that words are words, and that things are things; events are events; situations are situations; relationships are relationships; and that words are related to objects, events, situations, relationships as each of us relates them. Words, then, are the visual or oral signals used to represent or symbolize a segment of our experiential background. Thus, the words we use are as individual as each of us are individuals. Not every word is a concept, but concepts are represented by words. And, again we might ask: "What is a word?" A word is nothing more than a graphic or linguistic symbol that represents a segment of our experience. Here is a construct, a model, of the intellectual or cognitive processes utilized as concepts are built.

A. Perception—the act of observing or perceiving. I must perceive clearly and with a high degree of veridicality the object, the event, situation, or relationship. Certain percepts, therefore, are garnered as a product of the act of perceiving.

B. Abstraction—this refers to the mental process by which I would neglect or cut off certain impressions or select percepts, images, or memories which are related. The process of selecting a specific meaning from a generic meaning may be called abstraction.

C. Inductive thinking or the formation of the generalization. In this type of reasoning, related data are integrated, and therefore, a generalization (concept) emerges. This is the final step in concept formation.

As stated earlier, concepts are one of the primary materials of the thinking act. My appraisal of the environment in which I live will be no more valid than the clarity, completeness, and the organic quality of the concepts used in the thinking processes employed. It behooves me, therefore, to strive continuously to refine the materials of thinking I use as I appraise the reality which surrounds me, particularly if I am to make significant contributions to the society in which I live.

Again, I should like to return to my definition of reading: Reading to me is the cognitive art of perceiving and ordering my environment. In the formation of the concept, **fairness,** the hypothetical child was reading, not only the materials encompassing social studies, biographies, sport stories, etc., but he was reading, **if you please,** events, situations, and relationships.

Or,another case in point, did not the Psalmist, as I am sure many of you have done, lie on a high hill and read the stars at night: and did he not stand on the same hill during a day and view the land below as a prelude to describing his concept of God:

> The heavens declare the Glory of God;
> And the firmament showeth his handiwork;
> Day unto day uttereth speech;
> And night unto night showeth knowledge.

And as a parting thought: The development of a thoughtful, inquiring mind has been listed by more than a few scholars as one of the objectives of education in a democracy. Since concepts are the primary materials of the thinking art, this very fact emphasizes the truth of the old adage—"As a man thinketh, so is he." Could we not, those of us who are dedicated to the development of a language facility commensurate with each child's unique abilities, solve many of the social problems of this moment by refining and literally cleaning up the language behaviors of certain aberrant social groups?

I should hope so.

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SKILLS AND CONTENT—TAUGHT SEPARATELY OR TOGETHER?

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Every teacher is a teacher of reading is an old cliche by now. Periodically during the past thirty years there have been waves of intensity to do something about the reading skills as they apply to each discipline. We have concentrated our attention for the most part, at the high school level. Some application has been suggested for the upper elementary grades. The results at these levels are indeed spasmodic—the degree of skill and content fusion determined largely by a teacher's bias and background. Now, I am suggesting that the college professor also become active in teaching the skill of reading content material.

Teaching reading in the content areas in college has much in its favor. Three obvious arguments can be cited immediately. (1) The basic law of learning is that a skill is best learned when the learner has the need and opportunity to use it. (2) Our research during the past about the nature of reading has pointed to the realization that the act of reading requires the use of skills which can be constantly improved. (3) Another pertinent consideration is the growing vastness of many disciplines. Students are unable to learn within the time limits of college the thoroughness and degree of coverage we traditionally think college graduates should have. In order to keep up with the growing knowledge, the student needs the skills and techniques which will help him to get the information whenever he needs it. Basic to the proposition that the reading skills should be taught with the content fields is the elementary fact that greater competence in reading cannot be taught in a vacuum. The practice paragraph, chapter, or selection and the vocabulary to be learned has to be about something. Why not use the material which contains information pertinent to a subject discipline? Why not teach the skills as the students need them?

Let's see what college students themselves say about their needs in reading. On a questionnaire answered by two of my freshmen reading classes, I found out their views about reading and their needs. Thirty-two students answered the questionnaire.

All of the students said that their reading skills need improvement. Most of them became aware of this need before coming to college. For the greatest number the awareness evidently became apparent either when they took tests for college entrance or as they analyzed their study habits. Nearly half pointed out that their minds wander and they have difficulty concentrating. Interestingly, approximately two of every three had not tried to correct the felt deficiency prior to college.

When asked what they thought was wrong with their reading the topmost deficiency was the need to improve vocabulary. A scant majority noted vocabulary and half of the students listed comprehension and concentration as areas where they need help. The students gave various reasons to explain how their deficiencies affected their college work. Generally, they felt that their weaknesses in reading caused them to expend more effort than normal on their college assignments. Basically there was no consensus or realization about the causes of their deficiencies. Among the causes listed were: small vocabulary, do not concentrate, do not discipline myself with hard material, skip over dull parts, did not read enough in high school years, and cannot apply the skills.

Most of the disciplines were listed by the students as they noted college courses where they were having some difficulties. The sciences and mathematics seem to be the area where the students' existing reading skills were least effective. However, the large amounts of reading required of the English and social science students were mentioned to be points of difficulty.

The general tenor of the answers on the questionnaire was that reading was a "duty thing that you had to do in order to pass your courses." A few read current novels; but pupils give the impression that self-motivated reading for pleasure is spasmodic at best. Some maintain that time is a problem; there is too much else demanding their time. About one-third of the students have part-time employment in addition to their college work. Then there is the view held by approximately one-third and expressed by one, "The easiest escape from reading is a monotonous book."

Ask students, their parents, and the professors about the demands of college reading and we get an immediate consensus that a high degree of competence is needed by the student if he is to maintain himself academically in college. Students and parents hope that the barrier of ineffective reading can be overcome whereas the professor states that the barrier must be overcome.

Kingston[1] has given us an objective description of the typical college textbook and the skill demands needed to master it. He states that many college students have difficulty in comprehending because of inadequate experiential backgrounds. Take this statement further and the basic deficiency of vocabulary is apparent. Vocabulary growth comes most naturally as the student gains experience. Vocabulary operates here as the medium of thinking about the experience. The students' responses to the questionnaire seem to realize the same fact. Kingston notes further that library techniques and general plans for study are areas where college students show need. Kingston thinks that these problems fail to receive adequate attention. Perhaps, he maintains, the reading specialists on college campuses should familiarize the college instructors with the reading problems of their students. To this I add a fervent "Amen." I suggest that reading specialists go further and work with the professors in the fusion of reading skill and content instruction. Such a cooperative venture will depend upon the mutual professional concern for the student.

College reading programs are legion. They all have as their goal the greater competence of the student in reading independently to gain information and understanding. A review of the literature will show that most of the programs tend to show a degree of success toward their goal. There is also a tiny and seemingly vibrant movement toward allying the reading courses and the subject matter courses.

Loretta Wade[2] describes the reading course given at Lincoln Junior College in Lincoln, Illinois. A definite attempt is made toward bringing together the student study tasks in their courses and the reading skill instruction in the reading course.

Martha Maxwell evolved an interesting program at the University of Maryland involving the mathematics and science departments of the university. As we have noted these areas are cited by the students as ones of reading difficulty. Specific instruction was given for one science area.[3]

In mathematics Miss Maxwell and the professor tape recorded all of his lectures and put them in the reading lab for the students to use for practice. The students used the tapes extensively. Grades in the mathematics classes for these students increased. The mathematics instructor reported that he was able to work entirely with students individually since they now had access to material which normally was presented in class. Miss Maxwell states that several math teachers were going to work to develop programs and evaluate materials.[4]

A program, being developed at Hofstra University, involves the cooperation of the history and reading faculties of the university in developing a combined History-Reading course. In it, the student is given instruction and practice in the reading-study skills as they learn the content of the History of Western Civilization. The reading study skills are applied to the history materials.

Should the skills and content be taught separately or together? As college educators we must help the student apply his skill of attaining information from the printed page to each of the content disciplines. Content and skill are fused. Such fusion is the key to student mastery and independence.

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Abstract

EDUCATED ADULT READING PROGRAMS: WHAT'S NEEDED

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College reading personnel are often asked to conduct a reading course for educated adults. The course is usually offered in the evening, once a week for a term. The interest of the student is usually centered around "speed" or "rapid" reading. Most instructors include other areas of study such as critical reading, study skills, vocabulary, reading of problems, surveying, skimming and scanning, and the reading of newspapers, magazines, and books for information and pleasure.

QUALIFICATIONS AND PREPARATION OF PERSONNEL IN COLLEGE READING PROGRAMS

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This paper offers information and suggestions on the background and preparation of personnel who conduct reading programs and services for college students. **Personnel** refers to those professionals whose main duty is to direct, conduct, and instruct college students in a formally organized reading-study improvement program. In addition, the term **college** is restricted to the four-year institutions because the writer feels that two-year college programs demand a different type of analysis far beyond the scope of this paper.

The literature on the background and qualification of college reading personnel is slight indeed. The **Education Index**, from July, 1961 to the present, does not have one direct reference to the topic. A more than passing perusal of the National Reading Conference **Yearbooks** for the last ten years and the **Proceedings, College Reading Association** for the same period proved almost as fruitless. A few articles in both publications are directed at preparing reading specialists, or reading teachers but scant attention is given to college reading-improvement instructors.

The question as to the qualifications and backgrounds of college reading instructors has almost gone unnoticed despite the hundreds of programs being conducted in colleges throughout the country. With the exception of Maxwell's[1] excellent 1966 report on training college reading specialists at the University of Maryland, and Kinne's[2] 1962 report on training graduate students to work in Purdue's program, the literature is virtually silent on what experiences the prospective college reading instructor should have. Staiger,[3] and Carter and McGinnis[4] offer brief and general suggestions on who should teach a college course and the role of the teacher; but only Maxwell, and to a lesser extent, Kinne, give a possible model to follow in preparing college personnel.

Lowe's fine 1967 summary of forty-nine surveys related to college reading programs from 1929 through 1966 makes no mention of the preparation and qualifications of college reading workers.[5] Wolfe[6], Newton,[7] Mazurkiewicz,[8] N. B. Smith,[9] and others discuss the problem of preparing reading teachers and specialists, but do not speak directly to the competencies of the college reading instructor. Austin's **The Torch Lighters** is concerned with the inadequate preparation of reading teachers at the elementary and secondary levels, as are the IRA's **Minimum Standards.**

For lack of a better reference point, then, the writer must refer to his own two surveys on the background and qualifications of personnel in Pennsylvania college programs.[10] The two studies, separated by ten years, reveal the following information on personnel in Pennsylvania:

1. Only ten of the original 43 program respondents of ten years ago are still associated with college reading. A 77% turnover rate raises interesting questions.
2. About half of the programs have part-time directors whose other duties are unrelated to reading. Only ten schools, or 36%, of the replying schools have full-time directors with no

duties other than the reading program.

3. Three-fourths of the respondents in both studies indicate a staff of either one or two members. There are as many part-time staff as full-time, but the trend is toward the use of full-time staff.
4. College reading personnel presently enjoy higher academic ranks than did their counterparts of ten years ago.
5. The number holding the doctorate has risen from 25% to almost 39%; however, there has also been a corresponding increase from 4.6% to 10% of bachelor degree holders.
6. Only 20% of the present personnel have more than eleven years experience. Ten years ago 91% had less than eleven years experience. Where have they gone?
7. Education and psychology departments serve as the home bases for reading workers.
8. "Specialized" training includes graduate courses in reading at the elementary and/or secondary levels, on-the-job or learn-by-doing experiences, private study, clinical work, in-service workshops, and graduate assistantships.
9. Professional memberships are most frequently held in the I.R.A. and the C.R.A.

No information was requested on salaries, academic respectability and acceptance, the identification of course work taken, undergraduate and graduate patterns of preparation, and other valuable information.

In effect, we know very little about the person who functions in a college reading improvement program. From what little information we do have, we may infer the following pattern of selection and preparation of college reading workers:

1. He is not formally prepared for his duties. With the exception of the Maryland and Purdue programs already referred to, few graduate programs presently exist that prepare a person directly to function in reading at the college level.

2. Frequently, he is drawn from the ranks of the English, guidance, education, or psychology departments. We must assume that interest is the key selection criteria.

3. Formal course work, if any, is usually taken in methods of teaching reading at the elementary and or secondary levels. Some background in psychology, counseling, student personnel work may or may not be part of his program. The same is true for linguistics, history of

the English language, and communications.

4. Experience as a graduate teaching assistant in a college reading program often precedes full-time work in this area. A master's degree seems sufficient to gain initial employment.

5. An assumption seems to be that a background in theory and practice in reading at the elementary and/or secondary levels qualifies a person to function at the college level.
In summary, no general pattern of selection and preparation exists that would be representative of all personnel at the college level.

If the situation described herein is basically true, then it seems necessary to ask and to seek answers to a few difficult questions. Does a body of theory and knowledge about college reading exist at that level worthy of formal study? Are college reading programs so involved with mechanical and skill-building aspects of reading that almost anyone can teach in them? Are programs so loosely attached to academically respected disciplines that they cannot stand alone, as does a course in philosophy, for example? Does knowledge of reading methodology at the basic levels necessarily lead to competence at the college level? Are college programs basically service-oriented and used as a justification by the administration for accepting questionable students? Are the standards developed by the IRA, and endorsed by the CRA, for the minimum qualifications of reading specialists broad enough to include college teachers of reading? Do we automatically assume that a college reading teacher has competence at the elementary and secondary levels? Is there something unique about reading for college students? Is the term developmental reading a cover-up for pre-college deficiencies? Can and should reading and study skills be taught at the college level? If so, what does a person really have to know to teach college level reading and study skills? How does he learn it? What does he need to know about the comprehension process? Rate and flexibility? The learning process? And so on.

If the teaching of reading at the college level is indeed a valid endeavor, it is time to organize what we know about it, find ways to teach it to aspiring workers, and to give it the attention it deserves by designing formal preparation programs.

McConihe, noting implications in trends in college reading in 1966, identified "a greater need for sophistication in the training of instructors in college reading . . . These teachers will require broader bases of skills, wider acquaintance with the psychology of reading and with counseling, greater depth in and understanding of the higher level comprehension skills." From the evidence submitted in this paper, an examination of the literature, the inferences offered on the selection and preparation, and the questions raised, it is highly doubtful that we are near the sophisticated level McConihe calls for. The crucial question seems to be: who among us is willing to light and carry the torch at the college level?

Or is it really true that "almost anyone" with limited preparation can teach college students to read and study?

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READING AS A FACET OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

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The purpose of this paper is to discuss the extension of the reading process to the very personal process of self-understanding and developing. The more one teaches students rather than reading, English or science the more one becomes exposed to the inner life of others. The significant teacher becomes aware of the student's alienation, strivings for individuality, quest for meaning, joys and his frustrations. Therefore, it should naturally follow that with this awareness of the student's inner being the teacher feels a greater need to respond to his life.

The two areas to be discussed within the framework of this paper are the construct of self-concept and the process of bibliotherapy. Hopefully, within the context of these two areas one will be able to sense some direction regarding the extension of the reading process towards the process of self-understanding.

Self-Concept

In order to aid in changing behavior through a change in self-concept, one should understand how self-concept evolves. The developmental process of the self-concept is theorized by Rogers in his book, **Client-Centered Therapy:**

> As the infant develops and interacts with his environment, a portion of his total field of experience (perceptual field) becomes differentiated as the self—a me, I, myself. Early experiences in the family lead to his identification of himself as a human, as a person who can move, walk, and talk, as a boy or girl. Most of these learnings result from the way a family responds to a child. These appraisals are his major source of knowledge about himself and the world. They are of two kinds: his real self, the manner in which he characteristically sees himself; and his ideal self, the manner in which he describes himself. These concepts of self are composed of such elements as the perception of one's characteristics and abilities, the percepts and concepts of the self in relations to others and the environment.[1]

Rogers continues to explain that the organism is selective in meeting his needs and makes choices in a manner consistent with the concept of self, abstracting from his experiences the portions he thinks will maintain or enhance his self. All organic and psychological needs may be characterized as partial aspects of this one fundamental need, which Maslow[2] designated self-actualization, Lecky[3] called self-consistency, and Snygg and Combs[4] described as "search for adequacy."

There is more than one dimension to the self-concept. Two distinctive aspects are: 1) feelings of competence, and 2) feelings of personal worth. Feelings of competence are a part of the self-concept and as competence increases, the self-regard is elevated: unfortunately, a negative self-concept can cause incompetencies. The student who is aware of his lack of competence in reading reflects a change in self-concept by his behavior. Personality maladjustments may appear as a result of failure to make adequate progress in reading. In addition, lack of interest and even hatred for books and other types of reading materials is manifested by pupils who have failed in developing reading proficiency. If a student fails to see how reading will benefit him personally or that through reading, some of his curiosities and basic desires can be satisfied, his behavior generally will indicate lack of interest in reading.[5]

Russell, alluded to the affective level in reading when he defined reading as a three-level process:

> The first level is the surface level of calling the word: the second is a level of understanding the explicit meaning of sentence, paragraph, or passage: the third level is the one at which the student goes beyond the facts to a discovery of new and personal values.[6]

The results of a study by Zimmerman and Allebrand of the relationship between personal adjustment, attitudes toward achievement, and reading skills disclosed that, as compared to the poor reader, the good reader is more apt to describe himself as well adjusted and motivated by internalized drives which result in effortful and persistent striving for success. The good readers appear to have an excellent grasp of the concepts of adjustment and motivation which they want to have acknowledged. The poor readers, however, willingly admit to feelings of discouragement, inadequacy, and nervousness, and acknowledge goals which are often ephemeral or immediate—especially in avoiding achievement.[7]

Teachers cannot quickly gain insight into the poor reader's self-concept and his attitudes toward reading. Careful observation of the pupil's behavior, comments and reaction to reading over a period of time is necessary. Additional cues will be provided by his relationships with school and teachers. Autobiographies, compositions on such topics as their ambitions, unpleasant experiences, and so on, provide the teacher with leads which may be followed by teacher-pupil discussions. Once teachers are able to establish some understanding of an individual's self-concept and its relation to his behavior in reading and other learning situations, they are ready to begin looking at the process of bibliotherapy as a means to change self-concept and behavior.

Bibliotherapy

Through the use of bibliotherapy, the teacher can attempt to meet individual needs by providing meaningful reading which will result, hopefully, in progress in learning, different attitudes toward books, and sometimes even a more positive self-concept.[8]

In A Candle of Understanding, Baily writes about five insecurities which books can help one overcome. These insecurities are in the areas of relationships with peers, family relationships, repeated failures, economic factors and physical factors. Bibliotherapy is the interaction between the reader and literature used for personality assessment, adjustment and growth. Therefore, whenever a teacher, counselor or librarian engages in helping a student understand himself through reading he is engaged in the process of bibliotherapy.[9]

Although it is only recently that the dynamics of interaction between the reader and a book have been conceptualized into theory and called bibliotherapy, the actual effects are not new. An awareness of the beneficial effects of literature dates back to the ancient Greeks and Romans whose inscriptions on library walls referred to the "healing effect" of books.

The basic psychological effects of reading are identification, catharsis and insight. The reader identifies with the character. What follows is the releasing of an emotion and a working through of the problem with the book character. Finally, some degree of insight or understanding may take place.

Bibliotherapy has been used with mentally ill patients to reawaken an interest in their environment and to reestablish a basis for social adjustment. For students it makes reading appear worthwhile; it provides a way to solve problems. It helps relieve elements of tension from past experiences and attain new understandings from these experiences. Bibliotherapy helps overcome emotional insecurities in the five areas mentioned previously as well as develops insights and understanding of the problem. Books also help a student face his feelings and provide an avenue for revealing them to others. They help him to realize that his problems are not so different from other peoples' problems. Finally, books can help an individual plan a course of action for his future behavior.

Although there is no wide measurement of the effectiveness of bibliotherapy it has been used in a number of ways. This technique has proven successful with slow learners, delinquents, gifted students, stutterers, brain damaged patients and patients in psychotherapy. It has also been used effectively in dealing with personal-social conflicts and with character formation.

Bibliotherapy can be used to bring about psychological changes by presenting new information through words and ideas but not within the structure of traditional education. Hopefully, the use of this technique will serve as a supplement to the learning already taking place in a classroom which can be thought of as a human relations laboratory, where there exists a respect for individual differences, an opportunity for the honest expressions of feelings and an expansion of the self.

Summary

A major aspect of the child's self-development and measure of his increased self-adjustment is his program in narrowing the gap between what he is and what he wants to become. Children need opportunities for increasing their sensivitity to and perceptions of their self-concepts. Need for developing a reading program that will enable schools to implement further their efforts in providing for individual differences constitutes a significant challenge for education in the years ahead.

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EVALUATION OF CASES OF LEARNING DIFFICULTIES

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In the Montgomery County (Md.) Public Schools (MCPS) the educational diagnostician is included in the Department of Pupil Services as part of its team approach. The county is divided into 6 areas, each having its own pupil services office and there is a central pupil services office as well.

Our area office is responsible for 30 schools: 22 elementary, 4 junior high and 4 senior high schools. The staff consists of 5 pupil personnel workers, 3 psychologists, a supervisor, 3 secretaries, a community project coordinator, a part-time school medical advisor (M.D.), and one educational diagnostician. The chief function of the diagnostician is to find the causes of learning problems, particularly reading problems, of students, and make recommendations for alleviation of these problems. In some cases the diagnostician's work in conjunction with the school staff and the child's parents is adequate. In other cases, help from other members of the pupil services team as well as outside help is needed.

Requests for educational diagnoses of students may originate with anyone in the school, the classroom teacher, reading specialist, guidance counselor, principal, possibly with a parent, and occasionally with a speech therapist, school medical advisor or school nurse. All referrals must be approved by the school principal and the pupil personnel worker assigned to that school. This year, since our office covers more schools than before but still has only one educational diagnostician, cases must be selected carefully.

Almost always the diagnostician works with the student in his own school building and brings all necessary materials. The following practices have been found to be helpful, generally before individual testing: (1) Review of all available records on the child—cumulative, confidential, medical, etc. (2) Conferences with teacher, principal, and others who work with the child to find what they see as the problem. (3) Some classroom observation or other observation of the student in a group. Post-testing conferences with the student, the classroom teacher, the principal, and usually the parents are essential. Often staff conferences including school psychologist, pupil personnel worker, and sometimes school nurse or school medical adviser are needed too.

Although the 6 diagnosticians in our county vary somewhat in the instruments and procedures they like to use, as well as the depth in which they like to use them, their preferences are quite similar. Over the past four years this writer has found the following useful in most cases:

1. **Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT).**[1] The test booklet contains four pictures on every page. The examiner says a word and the child is to choose the picture that best explains the word. A measure of receptive vocabulary, given in mental age (M.A.), I.Q., and percentile for age, is obtained.

This test is a good starting point. It appears to be non-threatening, to appeal, and to be fun for most children. It quickly gives the examiner some general idea of a child's ability although, in cases of reading disability due to perceptual problems, the obtained M.A. frequently turns out to be higher than that obtained on most other measures. Some diagnosticians have found that "up-county" children, generally from low vocabulary, farming communities, tend to score lower on this than on other measures while "down-county" children, particularly from the wealthier and more highly verbal areas, tend to score higher on this measure.

Where the obtained M.A. on the PPVT differs markedly from other obtained M.A. equivalents, this writer has found it necessary to use caution in reporting PPVT percentile and I.Q. scores. In these cases, when the PPVT is reported as a separate test, some school authorities tend to attach too much importance to scores obtained. However the problem is usually avoided when the obtained M.A. is placed in proper position on the Detroit profile (see below) and a note calling attention to this position as well as discrepancy between PPVT and Detroit median I.Q. scores is included in the report.

2. **Wepman Auditory Discrimination Test.**[2] This test consists of pairs of one-syllable words differing in one sound only. To avoid lip reading the student is turned with his back to the examiner. As each pair of words is read the student is to tell if the words are the same

or different. Number of errors permissible at ages 5 through 8+ is given.

This writer finds it helpful to deviate from standard test procedure by re-reading, at the end of the test, all pairs that were missed. Few students are aware that these items are repeated. For those who have true auditory discrimination problems the errors are usually quite consistent on both presentations of the items. Those whose auditory discrimination is merely somewhat unsure, or whose major problem seems to be poor auditory attention, tend to get considerably more items correct when they hear them a second time. This discrepancy is an important clue in finding the true causes of learning problems.

For instructional recommendations it is helpful to list those sounds among which the student has difficulty discriminating. The **f, v, th** sounds seem to cause most, and vowel sounds next most difficulty.

3. **Winter Haven Perceptual Forms.**[3] In this test the child is shown a page containing drawings of 7 forms, 4 in the upper row, 3 in the lower row. He is told that he will be shown the drawings one at a time and when he is finished his paper should look like the page shown him. He is given an 8½"x11" paper on which to copy the forms.

Careful observation of the way the student performs on this test gives not only indications of level of visuomotor stress but clues as to how he approaches problems, organizes material, and feels about his work.

In one case, an eighth grader with rather heavy lenses drew the rectangle on a slant and thought the horizontal diamond was a square. She saw no difference between the corners of the horizontal diamond and the corners of the rectangle. When her right eyeglass lens was held over her drawing of the rectangle the corners straightened perfectly. In a telephone conference, her ophthalmologist indicated that when drawing the forms she probably forgot to look through the center of her glasses. Since the lenses were thick, by looking through the sides she obtained distorted views which were transferred to her drawings.

4. **Measures of General Information.** Asking a child for certain general information one might expect most children his age to know

is often quite fruitful in revealing clues to his learning problems. Such measures might include.

a. **Alphabet.** The child is asked to say the alphabet. Then he is asked to write in order, all the letters, capital and small, that he can. Sometimes letter order difficulty, reversals and inversions are revealed. If he is unable to say or write the alphabet, the **Naming Letters** subtest of the **Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty,**[4] administered through the window of a cardboard tachistoscope is helpful.

b. **Writing Numbers.** The child is asked to count from 1 to 25. If he can do this, he is asked to write the numbers. Again, reversed order such as 51 for 15, reversed and inverted digits may appear. Often, in cases of reading problems, the child has difficulty writing letters but writes the numbers quickly and with ease.

c. **Days of week, months and seasons.** The child is asked to name these. The number he knows and the sequences he uses sometimes provide clues to the ways he learns.

d. **Coins.** A jar containing real coins and a dollar bill is useful. The child is asked to give the name of each coin, then the value. He is asked to put the money in piles of one dollar each until he can make no more dollars and then to see how much money there is altogether. The way he approaches this task is revealing as to the way he organizes tasks as well as his knowledge of monetary values. Some children reveal motor difficulties when asked to put the coins back in the jar. If these tasks are too difficult for a child he may be asked simpler things such as to make 10¢ or get lunch money from the pile of coins.

5. **Three Wishes.** The student is asked what he would wish for if he had 3 wishes. The answers are sometimes revealing. Some children refuse to give any wishes at all. Sometimes, if asked again at the end of the testing, when they feel more at ease with the examiner, they are willing to respond. Some refuse to respond to this at all. Usually other measures as well as this referral indicate that the child is rather repressed.

6. **Reading.** Unless the child is a complete non-reader a good assessment of reading performance is essential. A well constructed informal reading inventory would be highly desirable, but, along with other materials used in diagnosing, cumbersome to carry from school to school. The **Oral Reading** subtest of the **Durrell Analysis of Read-**

ing Difficulty, errors carefully noted, usually provides a convenient and adequate measure. The **Visual Memory of Words** subtests, primary and intermediate, the **Hearing Sounds in Words** subtest, primary, and the **Phonic Spelling of Words** subtest, intermediate, as well as the **Spelling** subtests, all usually prove fruitful in yielding clues to word identification strengths and difficulties, and are conveniently within the same booklet. Although the questions on the **Oral Reading** subtest are literal comprehension only, interpretation questions could be made by the examiner when desired.

7. **Detroit Tests of Learning Aptitudes.**[5] This battery contains 19 subtests tapping various learning abilities. Although the manual suggests using a minimum of 9 and maximum of 13 subtests, this writer has found that in most cases, grade 2 and up, use of 15 or 16 subtests is valuable.

Sometimes two subtests tap the same area in different ways. For example, a child may do poorly on **Auditory Attention Span for Unrelated Words** but much better on **Auditory Attention Span for Related Syllables** (sentences) because he is able to make use of language patterns and context clues as aids to recalling words. Usually children who do this are found to have above average intelligence. Some children do poorly on **Social Adjustment B** and better on **Social Adjustment A.** Often these are children who do well in their immediate social environment but either are not concerned about or not exposed to environment further removed. Sometimes the performance is reversed, usually for children concerned with the larger issues of society but inept at getting along with peers and handling their immediate social environments.

Observations of performances on other measures sometimes reveals significant information about a child such as habitual methods of reasoning, how observant he is, directional problems, mother dependency, fear of being injured, motor problems, and perceptual difficulties.

Most revealing of all is analysis of performance pattern when subtests are listed on a profile in descending order of M.A. obtained. The sample profiles which follow should illustrate.

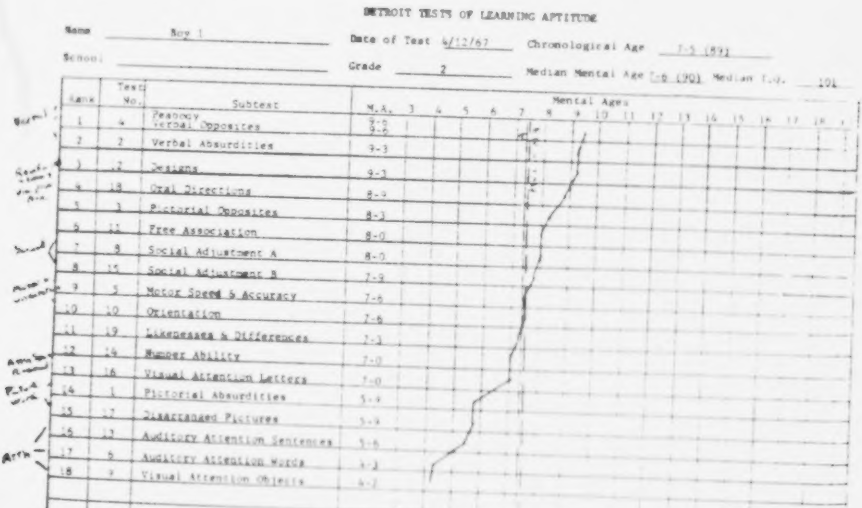
8. **Figure Drawings.** As a final measure, a child is asked to draw a picture of himself. Then he is asked to draw a picture of his family.

These drawings often reveal clues not found elsewhere in this battery.

SAMPLE CASES:

Boy 1. Age 7-5. Grade 2. This boy was a non-reader. His teacher wondered if he were immature or had low ability. He did very well in the verbal area but poorly on attentional measures given by either auditory or visual means alone. However when auditory and visual modes of presentation were combined he did well. He had considerable auditory discrimination difficulty. There were letter reversals in writing and in recognizing letters in groups under stress (when timed). However, according to his past records, he seemed to have improved. The whole case suggested he had possible perceptual lags but was catching up. He had a very positive attitude toward the testing situation and was quite cooperative.

It appeared that this boy would benefit from remedial reading instruction and specific recommendations for both classroom and remedial situations were made. Several months later, follow-up conferences revealed that he was making excellent progress with the school reading specialist and in the classroom as well.



DETROIT TESTS OF LEARNING APTITUDE

Name Boy 1 Date of Test 4/12/67 Chronological Age 7-5 (89)

School: Grade 2 Median Mental Age 7-6 (90) Median I.Q. 101

Rank	Test No.	Subtest	M.A.
1	4	Peabody Verbal Opposites	9-6 9-6
2	2	Verbal Absurdities	9-3
3	12	Designs	9-3
4	18	Oral Directions	8-9
5	3	Pictorial Opposites	8-3
6	11	Free Association	8-0
7	8	Social Adjustment A	8-0
8	15	Social Adjustment B	7-9
9	5	Motor Speed & Accuracy	7-6
10	10	Orientation	7-6
11	19	Likenesses & Differences	7-3
12	14	Number Ability	7-0
13	16	Visual Attention Letters	7-0
14	1	Pictorial Absurdities	5-9
15	17	Disarranged Pictures	5-9
16	13	Auditory Attention Sentences	5-6
17	6	Auditory Attention Words	5-3
18	9	Visual Attention Objects	4-7

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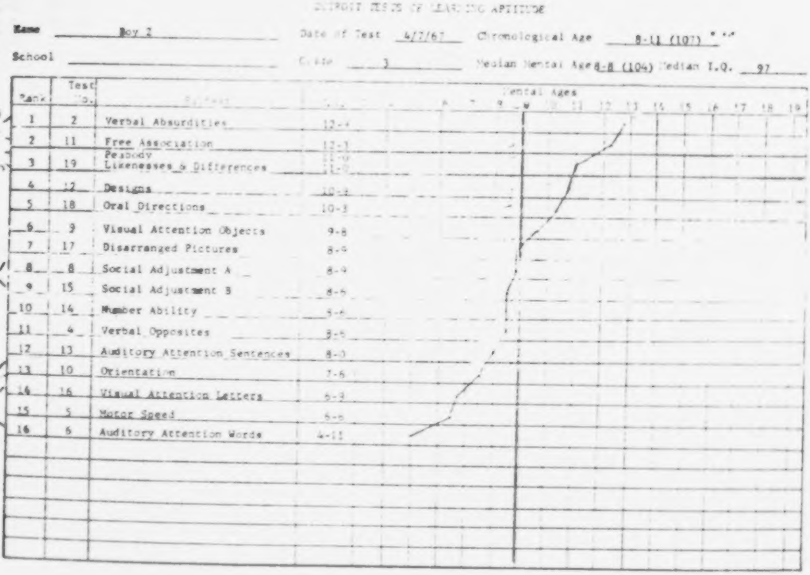
Boy 2. Age 8-11. Grade 3. This boy was a virtual non-reader. He had received special help from one of the teachers throughout the previous school year but no progress seemed to be made. He had problems with letter and digit reversals, letter confusions (g-t, h-r) reversed digit order (21-12, 31-3), right-left directions, and motor accuracy.

Although he wrote with his right hand, his letters and numbers consistently slanted to the left. On measures of verbal association and reasoning, this boy performed on a level considerably above average for his age. In his general school performance he tried hard and made good use of his strengths. However as he advanced in school, his adjustment was becoming more and more difficult without learning how to read. His performances suggested perceptual interferences with learning to read. Further investigation of perceptual difficulties was recommended. The following year this boy was placed in a special education class.



DETROIT TESTS OF LEARNING APTITUDE

Name Boy 2 Date of Test 4/7/67 Chronological Age 8-11 (107)

School Grade 3 Median Mental Age 8-8 (104) Median I.Q. 97

Rank	Test No.	Subtest	M.A.
1	2	Verbal Absurdities	12-4
2	11	Free Association	12-1
3	19	Peabody Likenesses & Differences	11-9 11-0
4	12	Designs	10-3
5	18	Oral Directions	10-3
6	9	Visual Attention Objects	9-8
7	17	Disarranged Pictures	8-9
8	8	Social Adjustment A	8-9
9	15	Social Adjustment B	8-6
10	14	Number Ability	8-6
11	4	Verbal Opposites	8-5
12	13	Auditory Attention Sentences	8-0
13	10	Orientation	7-6
14	16	Visual Attention Letters	6-3
15	5	Motor Speed	5-6
16	6	Auditory Attention Words	4-11

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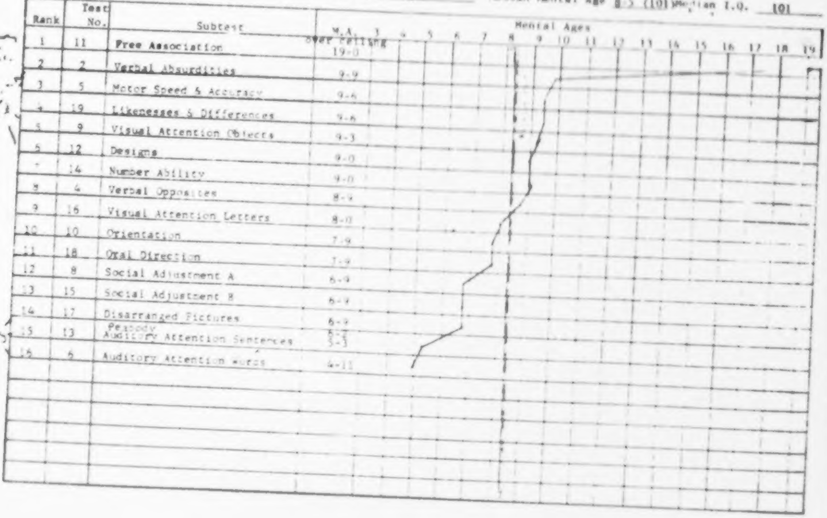
Girl 1. Age 8-4. Grade 3 and Boy 3. Age 10-11. Grade 5. Diagnosis of the girl was suggested to the school principal by her ophthalmolgist after she showed symptoms of conversion hysteria on two visits to his office. At that time she did not recognize many letters of the alphabet, had difficulty writing, and confused the order of letters in her name as well as in simple words. He wanted to know if there had been a sudden lexical change or if she had been having learning difficulties all along.

The boy had been having difficulty adjusting to learning situations and to school in general. He showed little depth of understanding, little attempt to solve problems and was an extremely poor sort. In the testing situation he was extremely tense, often near tears, upset when he thought he could not do something, and absolutely refused to draw anything.

DETROIT TESTS OF LEARNING APTITUDE

Name Girl 1 Date of Test 1/20-26/67 Chronological Age 8-4 (100)

School Grade 3 Median Mental Age 8-5 (101) Median I.Q. 101



Rank	Test No.	Subtest	M.A.
1	11	Free Association	over ceiling 19-0
2	2	Verbal Absurdities	9-9
3	5	Motor Speed & Accuracy	9-6
4	19	Likenesses & Differences	9-6
5	9	Visual Attention Objects	9-3
6	12	Designs	9-0
7	14	Number Ability	9-0
8	4	Verbal Opposites	8-9
9	16	Visual Attention Letters	8-0
10	10	Orientation	7-9
11	18	Oral Direction	7-9
12	8	Social Adjustment A	6-9
13	15	Social Adjustment B	6-9
14	17	Disarranged Pictures	6-9
15	13	Peabody Auditory Attention Sentences	6-2 5-3
16	6	Auditory Attention Words	4-11

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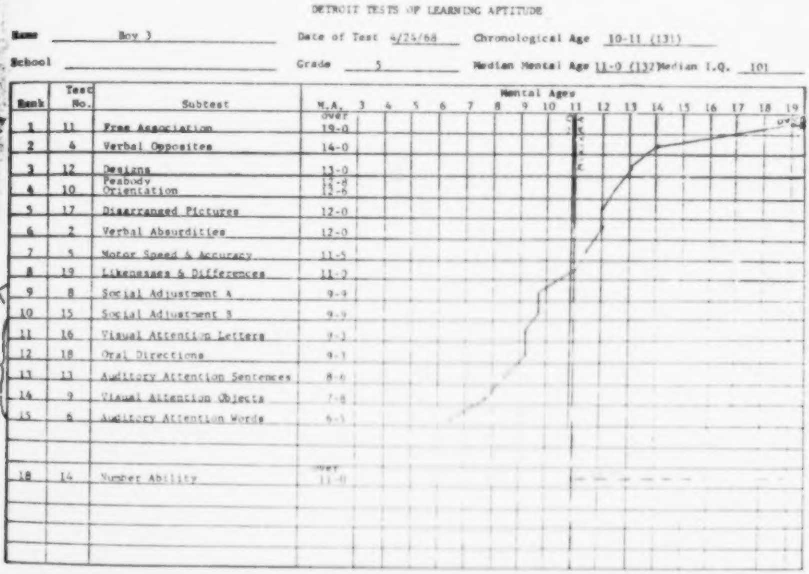
Word recognition was well above sixth grade level, but comprehension was quite shallow.

Detroit subtest patterns obtained by these two children were strikingly similar in several respects: 1. extremely high free association, 2. poorest performance in auditory attention, and in the boy's case, all attentional measures, and 3. social adjustment next lowest to attention.

Recommendations were made that the students be seen by their respective school psychologists. A follow-up conference on the girl was possible a year and a half later. She was making a very poor adjustment to and poor progress in school.



DETROIT TESTS OF LEARNING APTITUDE

Name Boy 3
Date of Test 4/25/68
Chronological Age 10-11 (131)
School
Grade 5
Median Mental Age 11-0 (132)
Median I.Q. 101

Rank	Test No.	Subtest	M.A.
1	11	Free Association	over 19-0
2	4	Verbal Opposites	14-0
3	12	Designs	13-0
4	10	Peabody Orientation	12-8 12-6
5	17	Disarranged Pictures	12-0
6	2	Verbal Absurdities	12-0
7	5	Motor Speed & Accuracy	11-5
8	19	Likenesses & Differences	11-2
9	8	Social Adjustment A	9-9
10	15	Social Adjustment B	9-9
11	16	Visual Attention Letters	9-3
12	18	Oral Directions	9-3
13	13	Auditory Attention Sentences	8-6
14	9	Visual Attention Objects	7-8
15	6	Auditory Attention Words	6-3
18	14	Number Ability	over 11-0

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The battery of tests described above has generally been found worthwhile in the diagnosis of individual cases of learning difficulties. Sometimes other measures such as attitude questionnaires, other reading tests, and aptitude tests are used. However, the WISC[6] and usually the Bender Gestalt[7] are left for the psychologist. When we are seriously concerned about or need verification or investigation of perceptual problems or general ability we are thus able to obtain them from another point of view. Although, in educational diagnosis, emotional problems may be suggested, exploration of these is left to a psychologist. In some cases, medical follow up is indicated and this is done by the school medical adviser. When further information on the home situation is needed, the pupil personnel worker obtains this as well as serving to coordinate all work on the case.

As can be surmised from the foregoing, diagnosis of learning difficulties on an individual basis is rather time-consuming. Due to the present large case load, the writer is experimenting with group testing and achieving some limited success. We are hoping that the school board will be able to provide another educational diagnostician to help the 30 schools covered by our office.

As can also be surmised from the foregoing, the diagnosis of learning difficulties is not only a challenging and often rewarding occupation, but an extremely fascinating one as well.

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CLASSROOM PRACTICES FOR CULTURALLY DISADVANTAGED COLLEGE STUDENTS

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Because much has been written not only about classroom practices but also about the disadvantaged, the title chosen for our discussion holds little mystery for us. And yet our exchange of views might be more meaningful if I take time at the outset to provide a bit of background on some related problems of the disadvantaged college reader.

Characteristics of Disadvantaged College Readers

Disadvantaged students at North Carolina College and the other 122 predominantly Negro colleges and universities in the United States are distinctive in ways that other college students are not. Gordon and Wilkerson[1] noted this in their report, **Compensatory Education for the Disadvantaged** when they wrote that "Negro institutions serve large numbers of young people who have been handicapped by racial, social class, and academic influences, most of whom could not attend college elsewhere." (p. 133). As if in anticipation of our query, Why could they not attend college elsewhere? McGrath[2] offers the following statement which merits quoting at length. He states:

> Most Negro institutions, unlike other American colleges, generally enroll a preponderance of women rather than men. Their entering students are on the average less well prepared for college work than those in other colleges, and because of lack of money they have difficulty in completing their education, with the result that the percentage of forced or voluntary drop-outs is larger than normal. Negro families have generally been less able than white families to pay the costs of higher educational and in spite of the advances in family income in recent years they are relatively more, rather than less, handicapped in this respect. The elementary and secondary education of many Negro students is so inadequate that some Negro colleges must attempt the almost impossible task of compressing as much as six years of instruction into the normal four college years. The common practice of elevating the scholastic performance of their students through programs of remedial instruction during the freshman year has now been expanded and intensified with the addition of pre-admission corrective work . . . (p. 157).

Let me relate two or three of the characteristics identified by McGrath to students for whom North Carolina College provides reading and study skills instruction. First, with respect to scholastic achievement, the average performance of a recent freshman class at our college on the Scholastic Aptitude Test was 327 for the Verbal section and

339 for the Mathematical section, or a total Scholastic Aptitude Test score average of 666. This is rather low when compared with the cut-off Scholastic Aptitude Test score of 1100 required for entrance into the university on the other side of our small city. Performance on the Iowa Silent Reading Test for the same class was much below the national median of 181. The average median score for our students was 159 which is equivalent to the performance expected by tenth grade students. Second, with reference to the economic characteristic, we found through questionnaire returns from 410 of our freshmen that 53 per cent of them came from families with yearly incomes of $4000 or less, while 83 per cent of them came from families with $6000 or less. Of course, we agree that the questionnaire is a rather crude technique by which to determine people's real income.

A third charactristic, not already mentioned, is suggested by Newton[3] who found that "many students at North Carolina College though able are so restricted in their verbal skills that they are unable to secure essential concepts commensurate with their learning potential." (p. 239-240). Such, then, are a few of numerous deficits, which disadvantaged college students bring to our reading and study skills classrooms. These deficits, in turn are reflected in negative attitudes toward study and education. These attitudinal characteristics are especially important in our determination of what classroom practices to pursue.

Diagnosing and Counseling

The large number of disadvantaged students with below-normal reading and study skills at our college justifies our practice of offering reading instruction to all of our freshmen as a one-semester, no credit course. Many students enroll for the course and are taught in groups varying from as few as fifteen to as many as thirty and sometimes more.

As students come to their first class session, instructors welcome them with profiles of their performance on the Scholastic Aptitude Test and the Iowa Silent Reading Test administered during orientation week. During the first and second class meetings, additional data are secured from administering a number of inventories. These include a personal history record which provides pertinent information about the student's social, cultural, and educational background: a checklist of study habits which provides information about the student's study skills, and an inventory of attitudes which provides information on attitudes toward education and study. Results from the inventories are included in the student's profile. The profiles are then used in group or individual counseling sessions to pin-point each student's strengths and weaknesses. During subsequent conferences, student and teacher explore means for improving reading and study skills deficiences. The counseling sessions are an essential activity for student and instructor throughout the course.

Instructional Practice

Rapid development of reading and study skills is crucial for disadvantaged college students. Unlike elementary and secondary school from which students may go on to continue their education, college is the end of the line. Hence, there is always an urgency in the planning and execution of our program. The reading and study skills we teach are the same as those taught in any developmental reading program. They include the listening, vocabulary, comprehension, organizational, study and reading flexibility skills. We attempt to make a difference in the procedures which we use to teach the skills. Rather than lower the curriculum, we manipulate our approach to meet the needs of the students.

Generally, we follow an eclectic instructional approach. That is, we combine a little of whatever it takes to do a successful job. For example, a class period might be used in lecturing or discussing a skill, such as the values of the Survey-Question-Read-Recite-Review technique in reading and studying. Another portion of the period might be used with a controlled reader lesson. Still another portion might be used to outline a chapter in a subject matter textbook. The eclectic approach has produced, in terms of reading achievement, gains as well as losses.

An Evaluation

Entwisle[4] has stated that, "the issue of what specific techniques should be included in study-skills courses is unsettled" and "It is therefore incumbent upon those administering study-skills courses to carry out evaluation of them." Following Entwisle's advice we make periodic evaluations a part of our instructional practice. Time will permit me to describe one such evaluation briefly.

We wanted to determine if there would be a difference in the reading achievement of three groups of students taught reading and study skills by different approaches, and a control group which was not taught any reading and study skills. We used alternate forms of a reading test as a pre- and post-test. The test yielded a comprehension score and a speed score.

One group was taught by an Audio-Visual approach. In this approach, films, such as "Successful Scholarship," and "Improve Your Study Habits"; EDL tapes such as "Formula For Effective Study" and "Art of Notetaking"; and records such as "Build Your Vocabulary" were the media through which the reading and study skills were taught.

A second group was taught by a Directed Reading-Study approach. This approach utilized the content area textbooks brought by students into the classroom to be used in developing reading and study skills under the guidance of the instructor. The Mastery Technique, SQ3R, and other techniques for mastering reading and study were skills employed. Group participation in discussion of the material read or studied is one characteristic of this approach.

A third group was taught by an Individualized Approach. This approach provided an abundance and variety of reading and study skills textbooks and self-correcting materials for the free use of students in the classroom. Students were given a bibliography of all available materials, study guides, and references for a particular skill. They were encouraged to work in materials of their choice, at a level and speed appropriate to their needs. Periodic evaluation of each student's work with the instructor is a significant feature of this approach.

After ten weeks of instruction, the groups were retested. When the data were computed to show means and standard deviations for the four groups, the group taught by the Directed Reading-Study Lesson approach had the highest mean gain of the four groups in both comprehension and speed. Although the differences among the groups were not significant, the results appeared to favor the Directed Reading-Study Lesson Group.

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MEETING TODAY'S READING NEEDS THROUGH MAGAZINES IN THE CLASSROOM

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It is surprising that relatively little attention has been given to using magazines in the classroom in contrast, for example, to the amount of attention given to using newspapers in the classroom. For the number of magazines is increasing in the United States. In 1968, 94 new magazines began publication, "with nine others merged or sold, and only a dozen . . . going out of business." The health of magazine publishing is further reflected in a "3.2 per cent jump in revenues to an impressive $1.09 billion for the top fifty magazines during the first eleven months. Circulation, too, had been up 3.3 per cent during the first six months of 1968."[1]

And it is encouraging to know that these magazines are being read, according to the survey of 158 leading high schools by Former NCTE Executive-Secretary James R. Squire and Roger K. Applebee of the University of Illinois.[2] The students were asked to indicate the magazines that they read regularly, and the findings suggested "not only the insatiable interests of the teenagers in the study, but also the absence of any close correlation between magazines available in school libraries and those regularly read by students." The latter finding is of course unfortunate and Squire and Applebee comment:

> The one magazine found in almost all of the libraries, **Saturday Review,** ranks only twenty-seventh among the preferences of adolescents. **Post, Life, Newsweek, Atlantic Monthly,** and **Harper's** are available in nearly equal numbers, but, although the first three rate high among student choices, the others were mentioned by less than 1 percent of the students reporting. Perhaps of more importance, however, are the number of popular and highly regarded magazines which many school libraries do not receive. **Seventeen,** ranked fifth by students, is missing from 20 percent of the libraries; **Look,** ranked fourth, from even more. **Hot Rod, Sports,** and **Ingenue,** eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth in student popularity, are missing from over half of the collections, the last two from three-fourths or more.

Squire and Applebee cite the need to have in the school library periodicals as **Hi-Fi, Western Horseman, Electronics, Road and Track,** "and perhaps with some student population **Surf Guide.**"

Fortunately not all school libraries have a dismal selection of magazines. During the summer of 1963 I taught reading in Irondequoit (N.Y.) High School, just outside of Rochester. The library contained an array of reading matter. An article describing that particular library is in **The Reading Teacher.**[3]

The periodicals most frequently used in regular English classrooms, according to the Squire-Applebee survey, are **Atlantic Monthly** (32.7 percent), **Reader's Digest** (32.5 percent), **Harper's** (25.8 percent) and **Practical English** (24.3 percent). Squire and Applebee comment:

> While teachers wisely spend little time 'teaching' **Life, Look,** and other popular journals, they may spend too much time as it is on the **Reader's Digest,** considering that it is already the sixth most frequently read magazine. But it does seem discouraging that class time spent on more thoughtful periodicals like **Harper's** and **Atlantic Monthly** seem to have had little effect on reading preferences. Actually, **Mad** magazine accounted for forty more readers than either of the two last named **periodicals.**

The Squire-Applebee findings are in line with the findings of earlier studies of teenage reading interests.[4,5]

Other thoughts on using magazines to improve reading can be found in Frederick S. Kiley's "The Magazine in the Classroom," Margaret R. Norton's "Pamphlets and Magazines Stimulate Social Studies," and Charles M. Garverick's "Teacher Use of Educational Psychology Journals." Kiley[6] suggests ways that the selection of pictures reflect the subtle use of propaganda and also gives examples of deifying mediocrity. Norton[7] indicates how magazines may stimulate interest in social studies and lists some fifty periodicals for the social studies classroom. Garverick[8] discusses the results he obtained when he asked teachers at the beginning and at the end of a course to list professional journals that they would recommend to their fellow teachers.

The first issue of the **Indiana Reading Quarterly** contains an article on "Newspapers and Magazines as Sources for Teaching Reading Techniques."[9] And **Hooked on Books**[10] contains a section on hooking youngsters onto magazines.

Using magazines to improve writing is discussed by Finder.[11] Additional thoughts on using magazines in the classroom are found in Squire's "Reading in American High Schools Today"[12] and by DeBoer and others in a chapter on mass media.[13] A magazine unit is described in the curriculum guide put out by the Department of Education of the Province of Alberta,[14] and two comprehensive annotated lists of magazines published in America and Canada appropriate for varying grade levels have also been compiled by the Province of Alberta.[15]

To obtain magazines, I once sent a letter to more than one hundred magazines listed in an issue of **The Writer.**[16] The letter simply requested any back issue of the magazine that might be available for use in the classroom. Not only did I receive expressions of willingness to cooperate from nearly every magazine but I also received recent issues of over a hundred different magazines for my students.

In beginning a discussion on magazines, I have found that the following procedure seems to be effective with most students. Usually I draw from the students the fact that one form of literature that America gave to the world was the short story. We discuss some of the influences that led to the development of the short story, including Edgar Allan Poe and the great variety of magazines in the United States. Even today, the students are reminded, there are hundred and hundreds of magazines available at any large newsstand in America. Continuing as much as possible inductively, I ask for names of magazines, writing each name on the blackboard in one of four columns. Five minutes later the blackboard resembles the following:

Life
Look
Reader's Digest
Good Housekeeping
Better Homes & Gardens
McCalls
Seventeen
Esquire
Playboy

Popular Science
Popular Mechanics
Field and Stream
Ingenue
Negro Digest
Ebony

Harper's
Atlantic

Comics
True Confession

Continuing inductively, we discuss what the magazines in each category have in common so that we can obtain a heading for each column. The students indicate that the magazines in the first column are widely circulated whereas those in the second column are aimed more at a smaller group of people. High school students do not usually come up with many magazines for the third column, so additional names might be added: **The New Yorker**, **Commentary**, **Paris Review**, **Partisan Review**, **Chelsea**, **Trace**, **Prairie Schooner**, **Transatlantic Review**, **The Antioch Review**, **The Massachusetts Review**.

Gradually the students may come up with column headings such as slick (wide circulation and usually printed on shiny paper), technical (aimed at a certain group of people), quality (as the name implies), and pulp (certain magazines printed on pulpy paper). The students should realize that these categories are arbitrary and that other categories could have been made. Many will also realize that some magazines can be placed in more than one column. The intent of the columns, or categories, they should understand, is primarily for ease of discussion.

Further discussion might revolve around whether a slick magazine or a quality magazine would pay more for a story or article. Usually the first response is the quality pays more, but when the students are forced to defend that answer they realize that the slicks would pay more because they are more widely circulated so they have more ads and can afford to pay more for a story. Some slicks, the students might be told, pay a minimum of $1,000 for a story or article, whereas quality magazines would pay about half that amount and some might pay only in copies of the magazines. Discussion might also revolve around whether or not the articles or stories that appear in magazines like **True Confession** are really true. (I know a woman who presses clothes in a dry cleaning establishment who, from time to time, imagines provocative stories and writes and sells these to pulp magazines several times each year.)

For an assignment, which the students can begin in class, the teacher might distribute available magazines with the following request: Examine at least one magazine and be prepared to comment upon (a) the kind of magazine that you received—that is, slick, technical, quality, pulp; (b) the audience at which the magazine is aimed—that is, young, old, men, women, teens, children, poor, wealthy; (c) the make-up of the magazine—that is, articles, stories, poems, etc.; (d) the advertisements—for people with or without money; (e) any conection that might exist between the ads and the articles, stories, or poems selected to appear in the magazine.

From here the teacher and students may move in a variety of directions depending upon the interests and make-up of the class. The teacher may wish to individualize instruction by giving certain magazines to certain students. Regarding readability, for instance, Robert Gunning, author of the Fog Index, observes that "pulp magazines (**True Confessions** and **Modern Romances** are typical) required sixth to seventh-grade reading skill. Women's magazines, such as **Ladies' Home Journal** or **McCall's**, 10; **Reader's Digest**, 10; **Time** and **News-**

week regularly average 11. Issues of **Harper's** and **The Atlantic** average no higher than 11 or 12."[17] Gunning includes a readability meter to indicate the percentage of adults who can read at each level. The Fog Index, incidentally, and other readability formulas, is described in Klare's **The Measurement of Readability.**[18]

And, depending upon the class, the teacher may wish to initiate critical reading through advertisements with a discussion of propaganda techniques. From there attention may be given to editorials and other writing.

Some students may wish to do some research on topics like censorship. They can bring in their findings and discuss them with the whole class. Louise M. Rosenblatt[19] in her brilliant **Literature as Exploration** makes the following observation: "The criterion for discriminating between helpful and harmful kinds of escape is that escape through literature should not leave the reader less able than before to cope with reality." The students may wish to discuss the implications of this observation.

Some of the more capable students may wish to help those students who need some reading help. Using magazines on appropriate levels, training can be given in main ideas (through titles of articles), in details (reading and recalling what we read), inferences, etc. Many popular coed magazines contain recipes which require the skill of following directions.

Many out of print magazines, or back issues, are now available on microfilm.[20] Some titles include **Harper's Weekly** (1857-1900), **The Nation** (1899-1923), **Niles, National Register** 1811-1849, and **Time** (1923-1967). Others available on microfilm include **Literary Digest, Manchester Guardian Weekly, Middle East Journal, Negro History Bulletin,** and the **Saturday Evening Post.**

Students with a flair for creative writing may be interested in knowing that, each year, nearly all of the stories selected to appear in **The Best American Short Stories** originally appeared in small, relatively unknown, quality magazines.[21]

Depending upon the time and inclination of the students, attention may be given to the writing of magazine articles and stories, for it is likely that one is better able to read an article or story if he has gone through the process of trying to write one. Regarding articles, the students can be informed that those appearing in the slicks and technical magazines usually have an anecdotal style or lead. For example, an article about the connection between the cost of a school building and the quality of education inside may be developed by citing a $10,000 school in Florida and a $15,000 school in Texas, and a $20,000 school in New York and so on until the author draws his conclusion. By being aware of this particular style of writing students can read the articles more rapidly and effectively. They would have to slow down for a similar article appearing in a quality magazine, for the writer might give a thorough presentation of both sides of the question and then draw his conclusion.

In short, there are many ways of meeting today's reading needs through magazines in the classroom, and the degree of courage and imagination on the part of each teacher will determine the extent to which these ways are provided for the students.

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ATTITUDES BEFORE AND AFTER TAKING A REQUIRED COURSE IN READING

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May I say as a prelude that this inquiry was conducted as part of a self-study of the Freshman Developmental Reading Program as it presently exists at Appalachian State University in Boone, North Carolina. Because the self-study is still in progress and will continue on a formal basis until the end of the academic year 1968-69, a final report is not available at the present time. Information relative to a tentative status report are presented in general—not computerized—terms to faciliate communication of broad findings. No attempt has been made to make this study a soporific scientific circus.

Background

Appalachian State University has a rather unique Freshman Developmental Reading Program in that one quarter of developmental reading is required of **all** entering freshmen, regardless of their initial level of reading performance. Approximately 1,455 freshmen have been or will be involved during the current academic year. The Freshman Developmental Reading Program is predicated on two assumptions indicated previously in the literature by Uberto Price. One assumption is that the ultimate in reading is never reached. The second is that the study skills needed for success in the content areas of the university curriculum are essentially reading skills.

Approximately one-third of the freshman class is taught reading each quarter. Scores on the verbal portion of the **Scholastic Aptitude Test** are utilized to divide the freshman class into three equal groups.

Students with the lowest SAT-Verbal scores are expected to take Developmental Reading fall quarter. Student at the middle range sign up winter quarter. The highest scorers take the course, Education 100, Developmental Reading, spring quarter.

The classes meet three days a week for 50 minutes. One hour of credit is given. (This is a constant source of student irritation.) Outside work is at a minimum since we believe maximum progress can best be made if students are under our direct guidance.

Six graduate assistants and three part-time staff members serve as instructors. Developmental classes are limited to thirty. Students must achieve proficiency on the **Nelson-Denny Reading Test** at the thirty-third percentile in order to complete the course. (This is a second source of irritation.) The corresponding grade equivalent is 11.1 on Form A of the test. Approximately six percent of all students fail to achieve proficiency in one quarter and are referred to a non-credit program—Remedial Reading—for small group instruction. In this course, class size ranges from one to ten students in sessions meeting twice each week. Students remain in Remedial Reading until they achieve proficiency at the thirty-third percentile.

Program

A structured—non-structured program, if I may use that term, is provided. Two separate curricula are provided—one for fall and another for spring. Modifications are made for all three quarters as well as within individual classes as needs dictate.

Mechanical devices are rarely used. The main devices of this nature in common use are stopwatches and elapsed time indicators. Textbooks for group instruction are rarely used. While some books are utilized, selective judgment for individuals is practiced. A wide variety of possible books is used. Self-scoring individual practice materials are extensively used. Whether found in books or kits, these exercises are provided to meet specific problems and interests.

Student pre-tests are analyzed individually, and suggestions are made as to some possible specific materials of appropriate types for student use. Students are free to work in any area and with any type of materials they desire. Suggested possible materials may or may not be utilized.

The **Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes** is administered as both a pre- and post-test. A non-standardized unsigned evaluation of the course is also utilized. Ample class time is made available for both prior to the administration of the post-test.

Tentative Findings

A number of rather interesting tentative findings have emerged. They include the following:

1. There is no statistically significant difference in study habits and attitudes on the pre- and post-tests as measured by the **Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes.**
2. Individual classes, however, do make statistically significant gains. A pattern of teachers with these classes does not emerge.
3. There is no statistically significant difference between gains recorded by male and by female students on the **Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes.**
4. There is a very significant change of attitude as indicated by the non-standardized unsigned inventory. We have not been able to determine why this incongruous situation prevails.
5. There is a positive correlation between subjective teacher ratings of student attitudes and pre- and post-test differences on the **Nelson-Denny Reading Test.**

Further Information Sought

A number of additional pieces of information might prove most useful as we continue our study. These follow:

1. A comparison of pre-test scores, post-test scores, and gains on the **Nelson-Denny Reading Test** as they relate to quality point average.
2. A comparison of progress as measured by the **Nelson-Denny Reading Test** of students at all points on the SAT-Verbal continuum.
3. A comparison of progress, pre-test scores, and post-test scores for students in the various academic disciplines.

Summary

To summarize what we tentatively know, we might make these comments:

1. Informal unsigned evaluations indicate a much greater positive change in attitude than do more formal procedures.
2. Built-in procedures such as the requirement for proficiency and the one hour credit for three class hours strongly contribute to negative

attitudes. These factors are, unfortunately, beyond our control.
3. Subjective teacher judgment of student attitude may very well be the most accurate way of estimating student progress as measured by the **Nelson-Denny Reading Test.**

The study has just begun. It has far to go. The results may very well prove most alarming. That is, of course, one of the chances we take as we attempt to study our programs.

STUDY PROBLEMS OF SUPERIOR STUDENTS

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Although many college reading programs focus their major efforts on salvaging the bottom fifth of their freshman classes, there are clear indicators that bright students too, need help. This paper describes how the characteristics of Berkeley undergraduates affect the kinds of problems they bring to our Reading and Study Skills Service.

Information for this study was drawn from three sources: 1) the American Council of Education Survey administered to 860 entering freshmen in the summer of 1968, 2) responses to a questionnaire given to students attending a series of lectures on study skills, and 3) our clinical experiences this year in the Reading and Study Skills Service.

Berkeley students are bright. Entrance requirements are high. Freshmen averaged 641 on the SAT math test and 580 on verbal. Since Berkeley emphasizes sciences, the lower verbal score suggests a reason for the students' frequent demands for reading skills help. Science majors frequently have difficulty in completing reading assignments in social sciences and humanities courses. Further, coeds had median scores of 569 on math and 569 on verbal. This may reflect the fact that fewer women are enrolled in science courses and that women students' aptitudes for math and verbal courses seem to be more balanced.

Berkeley freshmen made superior grades in high school. Seventy-three per cent belonged to a scholastic honor society, 26% were National Merit Scholars, 47% had average grades of A- or higher in high school, 72% come from the top 10% of their high school graduating classes. Many of these students did not have to study or exert themselves in high school to get good grades. When they get C's and D's in college courses, it hurts. They come in for help crushed, complaining bitterly about their inability to read rapidly enough or the futility of trying to survive in college.

Berkeley students are pressured as are most college students today. Seventy-one per cent aspire to a master's degree or higher and realize that they face years of further schooling and that the competition will be tough. Twenty per cent of the Berkeley students are of Chinese extraction. Typically these students are under particularly great family pressure to succeed in college and to maintain the grades they made in high school. Perhaps because they are so bright and pressured, Berkeley students tend to see their problems as highly complex and insoluble. Simply answers, they reject.

Lack or Purpose

Despite their previous academic success and high ability, a major problem expressed by many Berkeley students is that they lack a sense of purpose. Sometimes this involves the unrealistic feeling that all aspects of all courses should be equally enticing or that the student should be equally eager to learn all subjects. He feels inadequate if he cannot develop great enthusiasm for every course. Sometimes, it is manifested in a rejection of the whole system. Related to this is a tendency to panic and lack confidence in one's own abilities to perform. This lack of confidence appears to plague even the brightest students who feel that the professors demand more than they can ever give. Panicking in examinations, difficulties in studying for tests, reluctance to ask for help in large classes or to admit they need it, trouble in psyching out what the professor expects are related attitudinal problems. In dealing with these, one is struck with the naivete of even the brighest students concerning the use of effective study techniques. However, their ability to use their resources when their academic survival is jeopardized and their willingness to try new techniques is highly gratifying to the reading specialists who work with them. Somehow, Berkeley Students, like other college students, do not really get motivated until the week before finals. For example, one student who came in recently reported that the day before finals in an advanced mathematics course, he frantically attempted to locate his text, lost at the beginning of the semester. Unable to find the text, he failed the final, but was convinced that had he found it, he would have passed as he had managed to do in several physics courses when faced with the same situation.

Effective Use of Time

One of the most frequent complaints students bring to the Reading and Study Skills Service concerns their inability to complete assignments or to use their time effectively. Sixteen out of 40 students attending a series of lectures on effective study skills reported this as their major concern. The attitudes of bright students about using time do not differ radically from their more average counterparts. First, bright students are equally susceptible to the disease procrastination. They complain that they put off studying particularly in those courses that they find dull or irrelevant. They seek from our service a magic pill to motivate them to study. Parkinson's Law holds for studying just as it does for business and government—i.e., in the students' case: studying expands to fill the available time. Given 6 hours of time to study, the student finds himself procrastinating, fooling around, with the result that he uses all 6 hours and still does not complete the assignment.

Another problem associated with procrastination is that bright students treat themselves very tenderly, and are most reluctant to put any pressure on themselves to speed up their studying. If it takes 30 hours to complete a 10 hour task, they will pound away at it rather than trying to think of short-cuts. Perhaps their reluctance to push themselves is somehow related to the tremendous pressure they face at the end of the term when exams are given and papers are due. It may be that their incredible ability to perform well under these deadlines and external pressures weakens their need and desire for developing more effective routine study methods.

In attempting to help them overcome this, we have found that operant conditioning techniques work well with some students. For example, one student who was taking German, embryology and organic chemistry complained of not having enough time to complete all of his studies. He was spending 4½ hours per evening studying German. Somehow he was earning D's in his other two courses without expending any effort on them. We worked out a plan whereby he reduced the amount of time he spent studying German each evening and arranged a schedule in which he gave himself a time limit to complete his German assignments. He chose to use a kind of aversive reinforcement condition by forcing himself to go on to another subject if he did not finish the German assignment within his time limit. Thus, his anxiety about not completing an assignment represented an aversive control condition.

After a week's test, he found that he could reduce the amount of time it took him to study German from 4½ hours to ½ hour per night and achieve the same results. He completed his assignments and learned the materials. So he was able to devote more time to his other courses and raised all of his grades. Although not all students show such dramatic changes, the student who spends most of his time and effort concentrating on his most worrisome course, neglecting the others, represents a very frequent type of case.

We have found that aversive control conditions seem to work better with compulsive students and science majors, though "not opening a letter from home" was not an effective condition for changing the study behavior of a foreign student who tried it.

Setting up positive reinforcement conditions is very difficult and seems to work less well for these students. For example, one young man worked out a schedule and was to reward himself upon completing a certain amount of work in a prescribed time. He chose to go to San Francisco, which totally disrupted his study plans when he didn't get back for 3 days. Many Berkeley students, highly anxious about studying and grades, are actually concerned about letting themselves be lured away from the study desk. In California, there are many tantalizing temptations and frequently students express their concern that if they do something they really enjoy, they won't be able to return to the drudgery of studying; e.g., one junior who hasn't had a quarter off since junior high school. They'll lose the mood. Even a game of solitaire, which one student selected as his reward, proved too distracting. He claimed he could not get back to studying once he started playing solitaire. These attitudes may explain the greater success we get with aversive control methods. Perhaps studying itself as viewed by the bright student requires a masochistic mental set.

Putting pressure on one's self to accomplish a given amount of work within a fixed time limit is the technique that appears to work best with these students. Most report that they haven't tried this before.

Since even the engineering students and potential physicists have liberal arts and humanities courses to pass, the compulsive students often have trouble completing their reading assignments. It is not unusual for 5 or 6 books to be required in a freshman English course. What does the slow, compulsive reader do? He doesn't finish. In one week 4 students came to our service complaining about their reading rate. They were all enrolled in a basic psychology course which had a ponderous text. Each student reported that he had completed approximately 1/3 to 1/2 of the reading assigned for the first examination. How had he fared on the test? All of the 4 had earned C's. One wonders what grades they might have attained had they read all of the material.

Many of these bright compulsive students have not developed skimming and scanning skills. When faced with an assignment that is greater than they can possibly complete in the time available, most students develop short cuts and build their own skimming and scanning techniques. Not these students! They plod through as much as they can, put the book down and hope they will pass the exam. If they are bright enough, they usually manage to get a C or a D. I asked one senior who plans to enter law school in the fall why he had never used skimming and scanning techniques. He replied that no one had ever suggested it. He had managed to pass all of his courses with above average grades because he had a good memory for orally presented material.

Not infrequently students present what appear to be severe reading disabilities but are achieving well in college. They may make frequent reversals, are unable to read a straight line of print, have all the symptoms of what is popularly called dyslexia, yet are achieving well academically. Why? They have managed to compensate for their deficiencies by working hard, and by the sheer power of their intellectual ability and dedication.

Other problem areas include difficulties in the basic organizational skills required in writing essay examinations and term papers. Our clientele who most desperately seek help in writing skills are most frequently graduate students.

Immaturity

Berkeley freshmen tend to be somewhat younger than typical college students. Twelve per cent of our students are seventeen or younger compared to 5% nationally. They are faced with the same problem of struggling to become independent that their peers face, but many find this more difficult since they live at home. For example, one girl wrote on a questionnaire:

> Since I live at home, my parents can't understand why I can't study in my room, in familiar surroundings. We've had many heated discussions over my studying at home vs. the library.
>
> Is it possible for you to send a note home to parents explaining that atmospheres conducive to good studying are not always within familiar surroundings and it's not just a cover for socializing when your son or daughter leaves for the library? It's a study retreat.

Political and Social Awareness

Berkeley freshmen are more likely to participate in politics and political discussions than students in other institutions. They are more likely to have protested Vietnam, racial discrimination and the school administration in high school. Twenty-four per cent of the Berkeley freshmen have joined protests in high school compared with 16% of the national college norm group. They more frequently indicate that they expect to participate in demonstrations in college than typical college freshmen. They are more likely to express an interest in joining the Peace Corps or Vista and keeping up with political affairs than typical college freshmen. They are less motivated to obtain recognition from their peers, be administratively responsible, be successful in business, or be well-heeled financially. In short, they too are trying to develop a philosophy of life and are probably less willing to accept the goals and educational objectives of the institution. How do these attitudes affect their study problems? Many students are demanding that courses be made more relevant to their needs; others castigate themselves for their motivational inadequacies and try to conform to the institution's requirements. One student expressed her views about the reading and study skills service clearly as follows:

> College should be a residence where people and their beliefs matter and are seen as inextricable from everything they think and do. As long as learning does not reach into one's inner self it will remain irrelevant and worthless. Counseling and the study program are to help students 'adjust to the present educational system.' Yet if this system is so drastic that it tends to crush one's

psychological bones, one's true inner nature, it is sick not to protest while such a crime is being committed. Personality problems may be loud protests against the crime, yet you people would perpetuate the crime by 'adjusting' the students rather than changing the system.

As college reading and study skills specialists we are all aware of the inadequacies of the present system. How often have we tried to help the unwilling victims of the system adapt? How often have we tried to use our resources to change the system?

PERCEPTIVE READING INSTRUCTION

Eleanor M. Ladd
University of Georgia

Involvement in teacher education demands continual seeking and probing for teaching strategies which hold promise of developing the potential of each fledgling teacher and of choosing guiding principles which are basic to the teaching-learning situation. Assisting undergraduates to become more perceptive regarding the affective aspects of learning as they master the subject-matter of the teaching of reading places special requirements on the teacher-education institution. The writer is fortunate to be one of those teaching a course which fosters self-direction, encourages freedom to explore and requires learning by doing. A majority of first year teachers continue year after year to choose it as the most valuable course in the professional sequence.

The University of Georgia requires two five-quarter-hour courses in the teaching of reading for its elementary majors. The first is intended to give the students a background in developmental reading and the second is the practicum which provides the opportunity to tutor a slightly disabled pupil twice a week with class sessions on alternate days. Although the title of the course implies remediation, the practicum is slanted toward extending understandings, gained in the tutoring of one child, to the classroom. This same practicum is the vehicle for graduate students to try their wings supervising reading instruction. This means that the instructor is supervising both beginning reading supervisors and students taking their second course in the teaching of reading during each session of the practicum. The ratio of students to supervisor is in the neighborhood of eight-to-one with the overall class size limited to twenty-five. His second course is the subject of this paper.

Modus Operandi

The first class session is devoted to a pre-test and general explanation of **modus operandi.** The next five sessions are spent studying the accumulated information on the assigned child, looking over material and equipment, and teaching each other how to administer the audiometer and telebinocular, and most importantly, building background for those who show deficiences on the pre-tests. Those areas of understanding identified by the pre-test as of general concern are listed for special discussion. Two students are then assigned to one of these areas of concern together—one student serves as a supervisor of the preparation of the presentation, demonstration, or simulation and the other student teaches the topic as planned. Each student has the opportunity to serve in both roles.

Subsequent class sessions are spent on the problems arising from the twice-weekly tutoring sessions with the pupils. Much reassurance is needed as the students approach with deep concern this first test of their teaching ability.

Building Perception

The accent is on perceptive teaching and effort is made to lead students to analyze their own behavior and feelings as they are learning the meanings of the behaviors of their pupils. In order to understand a little better some of their own dynamics, these university students must be freed to make mistakes. They are encouraged to be honest and are assured that mistakes are "a sign something is happening."

The student who has known tolerance himself finds it most difficult to accept the learning pace of his pupil and must be given as much supportive assistance as is possible in understanding his own impatience and intolerance. Great leaps forward are rarely taken but almost all students are able to accept the fact that the pupils having problems in learning to read are going to know some words under certain circumstances and not know them under others. Occasionally, a student cannot accept his pupil's learning pace and problems and is referred for counseling.

Many students have an adjustment to make in changing from the role of student to teacher in the practicum session. They find it difficult to accept an alert but passive role and to put the child in the active role. The picture they commonly have of the teaching situation is that of the teacher teaching something in the front of the room with the students sitting quietly in their seats. The concept of the teacher as facilitator rather than director may be established only after such reminders as:

"If one of you has to sit still, you be the one!"

"Learn to listen actively."

"Accept a child's way of explaining an idea rather than always improving on the way he has explained it."

In an effort to educate the students to teach diagnostically, special attention is paid to the meaning of the mistakes of the child. The students are cautioned to ignore omissions and additions in oral reading, which do not change the meaning, but to pay close attention to substitutions. Each substitution is analyzed to yield a pattern of miscalls to aid in programing instruction. Comprehension errors are given particular attention and categorized for further direction.

Much attention is given the meaning of non-verbal behavior. Everyone involved is subject to analysis by everyone else. Your slouch on a particularly hard day is likely to be noted! Interpretation of postural signs, eye blink rate and facial expressions quickly become a part of the diagnostic tool kit. Common signs of tension are noted and examined for underlying possible causes. Common avoidance techniques of children are also explored to further understanding of the child under stress. Many students realize for the first time during this tutoring experience some of the meaning of non-verbal behavior. They become more willing to consider non-verbal clues along with what the child says as they evaluate performance. They aren't as easily fooled by the child who says he doesn't care!

Two behavioral manifestations of difficulty peculiar to the reading act which cause new students concern are finger-pointing and vocalizing. With every class these behaviors have been a valuable learning for the students. They are told that these behaviors are crutches and that the children will stop using them when they don't need them. They appear to accept this interpretation intellectually. However, many students are soon faced with the actually of a child who points. They often have to struggle to treat the behavoir as normal and acceptable for these children.

Students are urged to examine the techniques they use in teaching. How do they vary their plans when their purpose is to establish needs, introduce a new concept, reinforce or review concepts previously taught, give a "mastery" check, or use an alternative technique to re-teach? Learning to vary the technique in accordance with their own purposes and the needs of the child requires building an understanding of the alternatives and usually takes the entire quarter.

Students are assisted in learning to ask questions requiring a higher level of thinking from their students. At first, many of their questions require only a "Yes" or "No" answer but very soon they are able to pose an occasional inferential question to the delight of everyone involved. A number of students are unable to use an inductive method and must learn to set up the situation for the children to find the generalization. The temptation to answer their own questions instead of waiting for the child's response is a tendency which occasionally poses a problem.

Each student records at least one session for self-analysis. The video-tape equipment is becoming more accessible and is proving to be a powerful tool in the improving of teaching. At the completion of each of the sixteen sessions the student is required to analyze the session from the child's point of view as well as his own. This procedure provides another avenue through which both the supervisor and the instructoi can interpret the interaction in the teaching-learning sessions.

Consultations with both the supervisor and the instructor occur every day and are usually instigated by the student. These informal consultations are supplemented by formal conferences at two check points during the quarter. Seminar sessions are held weekly for supervisors of all sections of the practicum to build awareness of aspects of human interaction which enhance and those which inhibit learning.

Problems

The process of the teaching of phonics has produced special problems. Students are able to answer questions about the teaching of phonics in a variety of examinations forms. However, Dr. Bob Jerrolds, of our staff, found they were unable to perform the same task we were asking the children to perform. When given a series of words like "prize" they were unable to formulate two generalizations as they would word them for children. Although a minimum knowledge of phonic generalizations is expected, many students have had to build understandings from the beginning using all the devices and equipment they were to use later with children.

During the tutoring, one of the tasks the students identify first is knowing when to "tell" a child an unknown word and when to let him try his developing skills. They find they do not automatically know when a word is phonically "regular" enough for phonics analysis to be useful.

A surprising problem is that of penmanship. Many students do not know how to print or write correctly. One of the first checks made is that of handwriting proficiency. It takes a few weeks for miswritten words like "cricKet" and "2arge" to disappear.

Summary

Perceptive teaching becomes more possible when experience in a practicum of limited enrollment is provided. The children blossom with the attention and enjoy realizing that they are helping while receiving help. One third-term, ten-year-old boy when asked if he enjoyed the term, replied, "Yes, she didn't start out so good but she turned into a pretty good teacher." Improvement when working with undergraduates in reading skills undoubtedly takes longer as a whole than when working with graduates but some apprentice teaching is of the highest caliber. There is, of course, about the same range of sensitivity among the students at the conclusion of the course but the lower end of the continuum is not nearly as low. Students leave feeling much more confident that they will become good teachers. They have been trusted with a real, live human being! One wonders why, when there is so much evidence of the effectiveness of early contact with children, we wait until so late in the professional sequence to provide this contact.

Abstract

THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMPREHENSION SKILLS — AN IN-SERVICE STRATEGY

Margaret Carvo
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An in-service strategy has been described to demonstrate a sequence which has been developed to effect an improvement on classroom instruction in the organizational skills in reading on the elementary level. Specific approaches are enumerated for the transferral of the course content to the classroom, along with methods for perpetuating the offering in an on-going school program. Five sequences of instruction utilizing a language development approach are presented for developing the ability to find the main idea. These sequences commence with the non-verbal base of strategic comprehension skills, apply the analogous thinking process in controlled situations and culminate in the application of these processes to content area reading.

THE MISEDUCATION OF OUR YOUTH—WHOSE FAULT

Daniel T. Fishco
Southern Illinois University

During the past few days we have heard such phrases as the "now generation," "the way it is," "this is where it's at," "the disadvantaged" (of one kind or another), and so on.

We were told that "today is the beginning of the rest of your life,"—whose life?—ours?—the youngsters in the classroom?—the prospective teacher who now sits in front of us as we lecture in the art of pedagogy?

We have attended several meetings. I heard about the "Structure

Stricture in Today's Reading Programs." I was informed of the various ideas concerning college reading programs, interdisciplinary approaches to clinical practices and procedures, and ideas concerning the mechanical skills of basic reading instruction. Such terms as behavior modification, perception of one form or another, reading patterns of subcultural groups, testing both formal and informal, language development, and, of course, those ever present methods and materials necessary for the successful program in the teaching of reading.

At this moment my major concern is, what is the value, the worth, and the purpose of these meetings and discussions? How many youngsters in our nation's classrooms will profit from our intellectual discourse here? About ten days ago, Uberto Price, our program chairman called and asked me to speak to you here in Boston. Bert told me the topic would be "The Need For Professional Standards For College Teachers of Reading," aimed specifically at those teachers who are in that nasty business of training the country's classroom teachers and reading specialists, to teach reading. Like a good lad, I sat down and wrote a paper keeping in mind the I.R.A. Standards, the code of this: the course requirement background, and all of those flowery things that the teachers of teachers are supposedly doing.

Since my arrival here on Wednesday, I have been wrestling with my conscience, with remarks made and comments heard at one of the seminars on Thursday evening, with statements delivered by Jerry Weiss, Paul Berg, Dan Fader, and this morning—Roy Newton. During my dilemma, I became confused between the meanings of the words "standards" and "ethics." So I followed the sign of the time and I did look them up in my Funk and Wagnalls. I still could not separate these terms conceptually and connotatively and then another word crept into the picture—that of "morals."

After due consideration, I wish now to preface my remarks by stating that the teacher is perhaps one of the most immoral human beings in our society for he is constantly lying to, stealing from, and cheating the youngsters in his classrooms. He is unethical in that he is paying lip service to the uniqueness of the individual child but does nothing about it. He does not have clearly thought goals and objectives, either behavioral or otherwise, that he is working toward. He is merely covering material, labeling and frustrating children, and constantly making use of outmoded, outworn, overworked, and inappropriate methods, materials, and techniques.

I must raise the question—why? During this, the twentieth century, why are we so far behind the times? The most important task, it seems to me, is that of educating our youth. We talk about standards, yet perhaps our teachers don't realize that the concept of standards is not limited only to those deciles, percentiles, and quartiles mentioned in the manuals of our standardized tests. The blame, my esteemed colleagues, is yours. Those of you who dare to teach teachers are the direct cause of our classrooms filled with failures.

It is our unique responsibility to provide the variety of experiences and models for those young men and women who are annually leaving the teacher training institutes. We are charged with the most important task of leading and guiding our prospective teachers to the awareness of what young people are all about, what they need, and how they may best gain fulfillment of their needs.

The teachers of teachers must face up to their major moral and ethical commitments of making the schools and those experiences happen, therein fit for the now generation with its problems, tensions, and frustrations so that our youths can cope with the mounting pressures of today in order to predict the insurance of a real tomorrow.

This will not happen if our sterile college classrooms continue to be manned by dead teachers and outmoded ideas.

The cliches that we laugh about the loudest are probably the truest. "Those who can, do: those who can't, teach: those who can't teach, teach teachers:"—(When was the last time you reacquainted yourselves with young, live, dynamic children?)—"Don't do as I do, do as I say."

Our teacher training institutes of today are doing nothing more than taking a shotgun approach with little success at the preparation of enthusiastic, enlightened and content teachers. For further details, consult **The Torchlights** and **The First R.** If follow-up studies were performed, I wonder how many institutions would be found that have not done a thing to innovate or change in any way since those publications were completed.

Last night people commented about the stones, slanders, and insinuations that Dan Fader tossed at us. I think he was justified and his accusations were quite mild.

If we, who are preparing teachers, don't take a good look at ourselves, evaluate ourselves, and make some drastic changes, the Conants, Rickovers, and computers will. Who knows, they might even do a better job than we do!

I wonder how many of you have ever had the experience of working with one child. Day after day you work with that child. You find you must adapt, change, reinforce, assess, reassess, modify, and pray. You realize this youngster learns different concept tasks in different ways and at different rates of time. You see the frustration at times of failure and the elation at times of success. You realize the payoff when, in fact, the child has learned. If every undergraduate prospective teacher had this experience, perhaps he might look at his fourth grade class with the true understanding that children are different. If each undergraduate had to create materials to teach a specific child and reinforce a concept, perhaps he would have some understanding of the needs of individuals.

If we as the teachers of teachers, would quit sending into the field of education new teachers with the notion that reading consists of mechanical skills and memorized rules that must be gained by all children in the same sequence with materials produced for that purpose and only that purpose, perhaps some real education will happen.

If we begin to attend ourselves to the question of **why** rather than **what** and **how**, which we have almost beaten to death, perhaps someday we might be able to arrive at some sort of professional standards for reading teachers.

Each year, semiannually, the Board of Directors of CRA asks the question "what is the future of CRA?" As an answer to this question and perhaps as a means of direction, I would like to stand on an imaginary bridge between those ivy covered halls of academe and the buildings filled with classrooms, students, teachers, administrators, and curricula of various forms and content.

With all of the professional goings on and nuance we have seen and heard of at this meeting, the dropout rate is still extremely high; much federal expenditure is used to retrain rather than further educate the classroom teachers. Educators are just beginning to realize that something ought to be done about the disadvantaged, but they don't know what. The U.S. Government had to create the Elementary-Secondary Education Act, N.D.E.A. and now E.P.D.A. so that schools could finally afford to buy books, establish libraries, and train their teachers. School districts are begging the universities to send experts for the purpose of conducting workshops and institutes in order to teach teachers how to teach children.

What about all of those professional texts, magazines, journals, volumes of research, and commercial advertisement? Well, they are all in their proper places. Neatly and impressively stacked on the shelves of bookcases in the professor's office—filed away in a supervisor's file cabinet, or in a heap in the teacher's closet marked "read as soon as I get a chance."

What about the sophisticated, intellectual level of discussion among teachers? What about the verbal fluency of noteworthy endeavor which takes place at professional meetings and seminars? Well —it is the old story; educators discuss, theorize, argue, and write about a multitude of ideas, but they don't seem to do much about them.

It is the classroom teacher who relies on the curriculum guide and the manual which comes with each series of textbooks to do his or her thinking. Or, perhaps, it might be the administrator who squelches the new ideas and big changes for fear the almighty status quo might be upset. On the other hand, the fault might emanate from the colleges or university where the prevalent trend is "take the education courses, they are always worth an A or an E. If nothing else, they will boost that ever important grade-point average."

These great and fearless leaders of ours are forever talking about standards—"Standards must be raised," cry the team of evaluators. What they really are saying is—"Give more busy work," "Lower grades," or "make it more difficult for students to pursue a higher education." When these things are accomplished, the call once again goes out "Send in the second team, double up here and there, omit this and omit that, let's free the first team for operation research, or project publish, or demonstration good will tour."

At this point, I could probably go on and on and cite examples of the unproductive, misinformed, and uninspiring teachers at all levels of education. You undoubtedly know of the many unqualified and directionless administrators who are at the helms of so many of our centers of learning at all levels.

And yet how many of you are involved in the kind of situation where you tell the student "how to." How often do you give the student the opportunity for self selection, for searching, and for learning—independently of the next student? On the other hand, are you the teacher of teachers capable of independent learning, self direction, and personal inquiry?

At this moment, it is almost pointless to carry this any further. We have not and are not going to solve the great dilemma of the past. We have a greater task. It is up to us—you and me—the teachers of today and tomorrow to make the necessary changes and reshape or redirect, or better, resurrect the ideals of American education as we conscientiously define them.

The students at Harvard University, St. Johns, Berkeley, and the other can't be all wrong. What are they saying to us—what is the message—better education—more emphasis on good teaching—a higher value placed on the worth of the individual—and perhaps self motivated learning for the purpose of one's personal edification. The free schools concept is evolving on many campuses for no credit.

It seems to me that there are certain goals we need to aim for. First, each and every one of us has to define education or the process thereof in a personal way. Second, we need to have individual direction or purpose. This direction must permeate all that we do, both inside and outside of the classroom. As Henry Adams has stated: "A teacher affects eternity: he can never tell where his influence stops." Third, we must be ever cognizant of our products. We are dealing with some of the most elusive qualities imaginable, mainly young people; their ways of learning, thinking and growing. Next, we are charged with the overwhelming responsibility of "modelling." We are in a position to aid in the reshaping of, the development of, and the exemplification of those attitudes, habits, characteristics, and, in some cases, human potentials which have been untapped and unnoticed. It is our task to insure the success of these United States and democracy itself. Fifth, we have a narrow bridge on which to stand. Communication and cooperation between teacher and teacher, teacher and administrator, and teacher and parent have to be strengthened.

Goals and understandings between the university and the schools in the community and the community itself need to be brought into focus. Men and women, such as you, must go out into the classrooms of our country with high ideals, steadfast purposes, concrete experiences, and great enthusiasm. As my close friend, colleague and former teacher has written:[1] "It is my firm conviction that the old, standardized classroom—with its standardized texts, standardized teacher, and standardized students—may provide for educational quantity; but it is the fresh teacher, with a philosophy of experimentation and a genuine love for the individual mind and person, who will ultimately provide for educational quality." These must come directly from you and me for the future of our young is dependent upon us.

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Abstract

INSERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS

Byron J. Ward
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Inservice education programs for public school teachers are needed for a variety of reasons. First, many of the teachers have had little or no formal preparation in the teaching of reading. This is because many state departments do not require courses in the teaching of reading for certification and thus many colleges and universities either do not offer such courses or do not require them of their degree candidates. The second reason for establishing inservice education programs for teachers is to help teachers keep abreast of the latest research in the field of reading. The third reason is to help teachers evaluate the vast amount of new materials available.

There are a variety of factors that must be considered in providing an effective inservice education program. The paramount consideration is the teachers for whom the program is established. They should be considered in the time the meetings will be held, the selection of topics to be covered and the methods used to present the topics.

A successful program meets felt needs of teachers.

Two sources are available for providing inservice help. The first is the inservice educator employed by the school system and the second is university personnel obtained on a consultant basis.

PARENTS: THE MISSING INGREDIENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Victor M. Rentel
University of Tennessee

In the play, **Lady Windermere's Fans**, one of Oscar Wilde's characters remarks, "Experience is the name everyone gives to his mistakes."[1] Before I begin, then, I think it only fair to warn you that I intend to share the benefit of my experience with you.

In teacher education one of our serious mistakes has been to pay only peripheral attention to the tremendous educational potential of the home. While there are numerous parent education programs, there are few teacher training programs which give adequate emphasis to providing teachers with the skill and knowledge to utilize parents effectively as educative catalysts.[2] By and large, our efforts to prepare teachers for work with parents have been hampered by a characteristic campfire girl boldness and sophistication. In many cases, our attitudes toward parents have been ritualistic and condescending. We tend to know but not understand that children learn largely from the home their language, their attitudes, their values, their conceptions of reality and possibility, their likes and dislikes, and in essence, what and who they are. By default and neglect, we inspire teachers to ignore parents. There are several reasons why teachers must be trained to utilize the educational potential of the home. First, with the advent of television, both children and parents have ready access to information in a format that the school simply cannot compete with. Schools must look beyond information processing to provide parents and children with guidelines for self-directed learning and independent evaluation. Both the tremendous increase of knowledge and the rate at which knowledge grows obsolete have rendered the schools helpless and unresponsive when judged by the standards children and parents have come to expect of television.

Schools are being outdistanced in their ability to provide relevant learning experiences not only by the impact of mass media, but also by the lack of time, space, teachers, techniques, and facilities. Teachers must be prepared to offer parents and children those things which mass media by its very nature cannot provide. Teachers can help parents to take advantage of home learning by counseling, guiding, evaluating, and providing methods of independent study. But, if they are to help later, preservice teachers must first be trained to work with parents.

. . .

If independent learning has indeed become a signal feature in modern life, then teachers and the school must be prepared to serve as a resource for diagnosing learning difficulties and prescribing highly individualized curricula. Today's and tomorrow's teachers will have to learn to do far more listening and far less talking. They will need to be expert at solving problems and more adept at communicating solutions. Teachers must accept the fact that everything that is worth learning cannot be and should not be taught in school.[3]

Wynn suggests that parents of disadvantaged children will need more than just information. Instead they will need to be encouraged to create an atmosphere in the home which stimulates learning. Disadvantaged parents, moreover, will need to be engaged in activities which involve no additional expenditures and which are easily accessible to them. Specifically, parents of disadvantaged children should be shown how to take advantage of free learning situations in the near community; they should be helped to make extensive use of the public library and selective use of mass media. Teachers in these situations will need to know how to motivate and how to plan wisely.[4]

The Teacher of Reading

Studies of the home unquestionably show that it is a major factor in school success, especially where reading and language development are concerned. Artifacts in the home, parental interest and encouragement in the child's conversation, and, finally, opportunities to model and practice speaking have all been shown to be significant influences on language development.[5] Mothers' attitudes affect articulation, their modes of discipline influence cognitive functioning and language development, their supportive behavior correlates with reading achievement.[6]

Where school systems have taken it upon themselves to establish training programs for parents, these programs have met with considerable success.[7] Evidence that schools and teachers can make a difference in a child's reading development by working with parents is not hard to come by. Guidelines as well as the "experience" of those who have already tried are becoming increasingly frequent in the professional literature.

This past fall a group of parents broke with the New York City school system to form an experimental alternative to neighborhood public schools. In Boston a nonprofit group known as the Committee for Community Educational Development was awarded $390,000 by the Ford Foundation to develop plans for a small experimental school system. The system will probably receive all of its operating funds from the state government. Proposals for and the ensuing struggle to achieve decentralization of the Ocean Hill-Brownsville district of New York City probably arose from the same parental aspirations as those mentioned earlier. Parents are demanding a share of control in and closer association with the schools. They are more than likely motivated by a desire to make teachers and administrators more responsive to the needs of the people they serve. Unless parents are taken into the educative process, a new and sadder alienation between home and school, has begun.

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AN INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH TO TEACHING READING

Sidney J. Rauch
Hofstra University

In May 1967, the following letter was mailed to all entering freshmen at Hofstra University, Hempstead, New York:[1] It should be noted that it was written by Professor Linton Thorn, Assistant Professor of History, and a former Rhodes Scholar.

> "Scientists, businessmen, statesmen—all have in common with students the need to master large amounts of reading. Perhaps one person needs to cut his reading time, another to read more in a given time. At Hofstra we are anxious to help students improve their reading skills, since we find this basic to all academic work, as well as to all professions and business careers. Next fall we will begin a special program to stimulating reading skills in a new way. We invite you to participate in this program as a part of your regular freshman academic work.
>
> Advanced reading skills can be taught. But when they are taught, in our colleges and universities, they are generally taught in courses that are separated from the regular curriculum and that are taken mainly by students needing remedial work. Since good students can profit as much as poor students from reading instruction, and since students are naturally most interested in what immediately and directly pays off in their other work, we are developing a new idea. We plan to offer a reading course for freshmen in general, one that draws some of its instructional materials directly from another academic course being taken by the same students at the same time.
>
> Hofstra's Reading Center, a national leader in the field, presently offers a one-semester course called Reading 1, which is optional except for some students with low-to-average reading skills.
>
> Our History Department teaches a two-semester course in the history of Western Civilization, History 1-2, which is required of all undergraduates. In 1967-68, members of the History Department and the Reading Center will begin a combined program, at first on a small scale: selected students will take History 1-2 and a special version of Reading 1 at the same time. They will be taught by members of the Reading and History faculty who are familiar with each other's work and in their Reading course they will receive direct help with their History assignments. For example, students will learn principles of note-taking in the Reading course by means of exercises based on the current assignments in the History textbook.
>
> We need interested freshmen to help us develop this program, with a view to its eventual adoption as a general requirement in Hofstra's freshman year. In practical terms, we ask if you will take History 1-2 as a freshman (rather than taking it later on, or skipping it entirely). Each course carries full academic credit toward graduation: History 1-2, with two semesters of three credits each; Reading 1-H, with one semester of three credits. Tuition charges are proportioned to academic credits, as usual.
>
> If you would like to participate in this History-Reading program, please let us know by returning the enclosed form by (date)

> We are confident that all who volunteer will be helping themselves, as well as helping us to help others."

As a result of this letter, 130 students of a total freshmen class of 870 volunteered for the program. We could only accept 60 for our pilot study, 1967-68.

Professor Thorn's letter was the result of the close collaboration between the History Department and the Reading Center during the 1966-67 school year. Too frequently, the developmental or corrective reading program at the college level remains isolated from the liberal arts faculty. The Hofstra History-Reading Program represented a meaningful, interdisciplinary effort, perhaps the first of its kind, to assist college freshmen in their reading of history. Most members of the faculty—and a good many students—had been aware of the reading problems facing the average freshman as he took the basic history course, History 1-2, "Western Civilization." Schleich and Rauch reported "It was apparent that many college freshmen—even those with above average scores on standardized reading tests—encountered serious difficulties with this particular course. Even the good student found himself in jeopardy at an early stage of his academic career because he could not deal adequately with the volume of reading material required."[2] The great majority of failures and subsequent "dropouts" commented on the difficulty of keeping up with the basic and supplementary reading assignments. They just weren't prepared in terms of reading-study skills to cope with what they considered an "avalanche of materials."

To attack this problem and, hopefully, to solve it, the administration assigned two members of the History Department (Professors John Follows and Linton Thorn) and two members of the Reading Center faculty (Professors Miriam Schleich and Sidney J. Rauch). Each professor was given one-quarter released time during the 1966-67 school year to work on this project. In addition to two formal monthly meetings, the instructors sat in on one another's classes, took notes, taped lectures, evaluated the vocabulary difficulty and organization of basic history texts, and determined which basic reading skills should be emphasized. The history professors were responsible for the selection of basic vocabulary and concepts to be reinforced during the reading sections. Examination questions in history were discussed in advance so that the Reading instructors would have some idea of the content to be covered, and the expectations of the History instructors. Where possible, the program followed the principle expressed by Robinson, "If the skill is to be retained and used, it is best introduced and taught in the situation where it is immediately needed."[3] Also provided by the History instructors were precis of the main points and contents of the assigned supplementary reading. These followed the format suggested by Cantor and Schneider in **How to Study History**.[4]

In general, the purposes of the 1966-67 program were two-fold:

(1) to analyze the content and organization of the basic history course from the point of view of both instructor and student.

(2) on the basis of this analysis, to develop a combined History-Reading course designed to improve the reading-study skills of college freshmen as they learn the content of the history of Western Civilization.

The 1967-1968 Pilot Experimental Program

Thirty student volunteers were assigned to two sections of the experimental History-Reading course (Reading 1-H) for the Fall semester 1967, and thirty volunteers were scheduled for the Spring 1968 semester. This latter group was also used as controls in two other history sections during the first semester. All Reading 1-H sections were coordinated with sections of History 1 in the first semester and History 2 for the second semester. Thus, each History section contained thirty students, fifteen taking the experimental Reading course (combining reading skills with history content) and fifteen students taking history only. Achievement of both groups were measured by the Cooperative English Test C-2, Reading Comprehension, an informal History-Reading Inventory, and a comparison of History grades. A sample of the informal inventory follows:

Informal Textbook Test

(based on Chapter 36, "The Thirty Years War", of
A History of Civilization

I. Four minute preview of chapter (approximately 4000 words)
   a. List important ideas and/or significant details obtained from preview. (6 min.)
   b. After completing the above, take a few minutes to review the chapter and list those words or concepts whose meanings are unknown or unclear to you. (5 min.)

III. The author has supplied you with many "signals" in Chapter One. A signal is a key word or phrase used by the author to emphasize an important point or to direct the reader's attention to an important idea or concept. As you look through the chapter, see if you can find at least **five** important signals. Copy these on your paper. (5 min.)

IV. Supply a synonym or explanatory phrase for the underlined word. The page number is included so that you can use contextual clues where possible. (10 min.)

1. This plump and **officious** ruler was a religious enthusiast, one of the last militant champions of the almost extinct Catholic Reformation. (p. 376)
2. In 1618, during the early stages of the revolt, the rebels threw two of these Catholic councillors from a window 70 feet high—an incident known as the **Defenestration** of Prague. (p. 376)
3. Neither side could muster enough strength for a decisive victory, and the war degenerated into one of **attrition.** (p. 381)
4. Some historians attribute the rise of **despotism** in Germany to the weakness of the middle classes. (p. 384)
5. It also reveals the decline of religion and the rise of **secularism** as a guiding force in Wsetern civilization. (p. 385)

(Note: Sentences 6-10 have been deleted because of space limitations)

Materials used in the History-Reading Experimental Course

Required history texts included the following:

Basic text: Gerrit P. Judd, **A History of Civilization.** (Macmillan)

Supplementary Readings: Francis M. Cornford, **Before and After Socrates.** (Cambridge University Press)

Roland Bainton, **The Reformation of the Sixteenth Century.** (Beacon)

Lynn White, Jr., **Medieval Technology and Social Change.** (Oxford University Press)

Plato, **The Last Days of Socrates.** (Penguin)

Required Reading 1-H texts

Basic Text: Sidney J. Rauch and Alfred B. Weinstein, **Mastering Reading Skills.** (American Book Co.)

Supplementary Materials: EDL Controlled Reader and Study Guides.

J. E. Norwood, **Concerning Words.** 4th ed. (Prentice-Hall)

Special selections from **Harpers**, **Atlantic**, **Saturday Review**, and other journals.

Skills emphasized in the Reading 1-H sections were survey techniques (with particular application to chapters in Judd's text), paragraph analysis (using representative samples from the supplementary readings), use of signals and other cues, critical analysis and evaluaation, analysis of the structure of texts and articles concentrating on such organizational patterns as "conclusion-proof" "problem-solution" "question-answer," and note-taking. An effective application of the last mentioned skill was to play the tape of a history lecture in the Reading class with both the instructor and students taking notes. The instructor would place his notes on an opaque projector and the students would compare their efforts with his. The results were not always in favor of the instructor.

Results

The average gain on the Cooperative English Test C-2, Reading Comprehension, for those students taking Reading 1-H and History together was sixteen percentile points higher than those taking History alone. There was no significant difference on the final History grades, though more "A's" occurred among the History-Reading volunteers. However, the comments on the evaluation sheet submitted to the History-Reading testify to the value of the program. Space does not permit the complete copy of the evaluation form and the responses, but three of the key questions and responses included:

Student Comments (partial)

	Yes	No
1. Do you feel the experimental program was a wise investment of time for you?	48	7
2. Would you recommend this program to other freshmen?	50	5
3. Do you feel that as a result of this course your reading is more effective	51	4

Conclusion

On the basis of the reaction of students and instructors involved, the program appears to have been a successful one. It has the full support of the university and is continuing for another year.

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METHODS AND MATERIALS USED IN A SUCCESSFUL JUNIOR COLLEGE READING PROGRAM

Imogene Freer
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The reading program at Odessa College has been in operation since 1946, growing from six sections of six to eight students to sixteen sections each semester—with twelve sections in the day school and four in the evening. Each of the two full-time instructors have six day sections and the three part-time instructors handle the evening classes and an occasional short course. Classes are limited to sixteen students per section so that individual instruction can be given with a group situation.

Since Odessa College is a junior college, anyone with a high school diploma may enter, but all college freshmen must take the SCAT, ACT, or SAT as a guidance examination. While enrollment in reading is voluntary, counselors highly recommend the reading course to students who fall below a score of 297 on the SCAT, below 20 on ACT (college bound), or below 16 on the ACT (all high school graduates) or below 806 on the SAT. All of these scores represent a 12.9 grade level. Of course, if a student scores very low persuasion may be employed in order to encourage the student to enroll, but there is no way to force a student to enroll in reading.

In the fall semester many students enrolled in the reading course are on a very low level of ability and may need to continue for another semester. To meet this need, six sections of English 112 are offered in the spring. All reading instructors are asked to turn in a list of recommended students for English 112. One elective hour of credit is given in English 111 and in 112, even though the students attend three hours per week.

English 111 and 112 or Developmental Reading is a course designed to improve reading skills at any level. Improvement of general comprehension skills with an increased rate of reading is stressed. Other skills stressed are vocabulary study, retention, power of concentration, and enjoyment of reading. Each student should learn to interpret the literal meaning of the author; evaluate ideas received through reading, and employ flexibility of rate in relation to purpose and need.

Before giving any kind of test, every instructor attempts to create an aura of warm friendliness and acceptance within the classroom. Some students are belligerent or indifferent, and many are embarrassed. Before the first period is over, most of these feelings or fears have vanished. The attitude is, "I accept you as you are. Whether you are a very good reader, an average reader, or a poor reader, we welcome you. Our only goal is to help you to become a better reader." On the other hand, the instructor firmly recommends that excused absence time be made up in the reading room and that all students are expected to perform at capacity level. A student may attend any other instructor's class in order to make up the lost time or to gain extra time. If a student has perfect attendance he will not fail the course; he can make at least a D. However, a student may be failed for excessive absences. Many hours of practice spent in reading correctly will insure, in most cases, positive results.

At the beginning of the course each student fills out a questionnaire concerning his normal reading habits, books he likes, dislikes, etc. He also writes a short autobiography. These data help the instructor understand a student's self-image as well as provide a sort of informal diagnosis as a basis for individual conferences with each student.

The two instruments used for pre and post testing purposes are the **Nelson-Denny** and the **Diagnostic Reading Test.** The **Nelson-Denny** seems to yield more accurate scores for the upper-level student and the **Diagnostic** for the lower-level student. The reflected grade levels are used for purposes of assigning materials to the remedial student; percentile scores seem more beneficial in planning for the developmental student. The same forms of each test at the beginning and end of each semester are given by all instructors so that a student desiring to take English 112 may make a smooth progression from one class to another. The final scores made in English 111 serve as the beginning scores in English 112.

The **Word Clues Test** by Educational Developmental Laboratories is given in order to help determine assignment level in a **Word Clues** vocabulary book. The vocabulary scores on the **Nelson-Denny** and **Diagnostic** tests are also taken into consideration in placing a student in a particular vocabulary book.

The **Otis Test of Mental Measurement** and the **Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Skills** are also given. Students in 112 also take the **STEP Reading Test** to identify further comprehension problems.

An attempt is made very early in the course to develop the correct mental attitude for reading improvement. Discussions are held concerning many aspects of reading, and students are helped to recognize detrimental reading habits. Sometimes simple awareness of these poor habits is a basis for eliminating them. Students are introduced to the SQ3R method of study and are given an opportunity to practice on actual assignment materials such as biology, history, etc. Students practice organizing materials for study and finding main ideas in paragraphs. Other suggestions are given concerning methods of improving retention and concentration. Each class period is structured to motivate and challenge each student to work up to his optimum level of achievement and to help him to realize that the dream of accomplishment is within his grasp.

Other orientation activities include explanations and demonstrations concerning the way to use effectively our self-contained, calibrated library books on the reading pacers. A student must understand the advantages and limitations of a particular machine to use the machine properly.

The reading room is a self-contained classroom, approximately 33 feet wide and 50 feet long, with a projection room designed for showing filmstrips or for working in small groups. There are eight carrels, housing **Stereo-Optical** Reading Rate Controllers; six portable SRA pacers are also available. Two tape recorders are used for listening exercises, using EDL's **Listen and Read** series. Headphones facilitate individual instruction. The mechanical devices are used for motivation and stimulation.

There are approximately 600 easy to difficult levels in popular hard-back and paper-back books calibrated for reading on the pacers. The student does not report on these books, but he may read an easy, interesting book in order to reach his maximum rate of comprehension. He is encouraged to read as many books as possible during the semester.

Students are placed in small groups for working on the pacers and on the Controlled Reader in order to individualize the program as much as possible. A student may be shown films individually if he reads a great deal slower or faster than the others.

Study guides are used with the Controlled Reader filmstrips. Each new word is pronounced and its meaning discussed. After each test, students check the kinds of questions missed in order to focus on these reading skill weaknesses when they see the next film.

After a period of using a visual device, students work individually on transfer materials. These materials are usually timed workbook exercises designed to fit each student's particular need. If the assigned exercises are too difficult, too easy, or unsuitable, other materials may be assigned. An attempt is made to keep every student happy while working at his instructional level rather than at his recreational or frustration level.

Many sets of mimeographed teacher-prepared exercises, workbooks, boxed material, and so on are utilized, ranging in levels from the near-illiterate to very sophisticated materials. The students are asked to buy **Efficient Reading** by Brown and a **Word Clues** programmed vocabulary book on his particular level as the two texts for the course. Most of the time only two levels of the **Word Clues** book are used in one class. These words provide a basis for small group activity in learning diacritical markings, phonetic and structural analysis, prefixes and suffixes as well as word origins. After a discussion period, tests are given over the weekly assignment of two lessons, the only work the student does outside of class.

The instructor plays a very important role in this kind of a program. He must always be alert to the needs of his students, be stimulating, motivating, and continually helping the student to achieve a sense of his own individual worth. At the same time, he must help the student to evaluate himself realistically and critically without too much self-condemnation. If a teacher can strike a delicate balance between being a "buddy" and an instructor, he will be successful.

By far the most difficult part of the program is the attempt to evaluate what has been accomplished by giving a letter grade. There are so many factors to consider, yet so few tangible guidelines for setting up appropriate standards. Each student is competing with only himself; therefore each student's progress has to be individually evaluated.

Since there have to be some standards for grading, (although these may not be appropriate for every student), the following are submitted as a grading basis:

1. Progress on post tests and daily work.
2. Perfect attendance (defined as excused absences made up).
3. No A is given to anyone unless he reaches his grade level. This rule serves as a protection for poor readers who transfer to four-year colleges. Even though a student may show remarkable improvement in reading, he may be reading on only ninth grade level. If a student made an A in Developmental Reading, the counselor might advise a poor student to carry too many hours or to embark upon an unsuitable program.
4. There are many other intangible aspects of grading a skills course. Increased interest and appreciation of reading, an enhanced self-concept, and new attitudes are all basic and important factors.

Since these factors are so many and varied, an instructor must be very meticulous in assigning a grade. Every aspect of the student's work must be judged as objectively as possible.

The most frequently repeated observed outcomes noticed by fellow faculty members and former students are as follows:

1. A student gains confidence in his own ability by making progress.
2. Many potential college dropouts continue school and receive degrees.
3. Several former students have become reading teachers because of taking this course.
4. A student has a better self-concept and can face his difficulties more realistically.
5. Improved skills result in better grades in other classes. In 1965, a study was made to determine whether students who take Developmental Reading make better grade-point averages than students (equally matched on five variables) who do not take the reading course. The evidence showed conclusively that the reading students made higher grade-point averages over a two-year period.[1]

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PROBLEMS AND COMMUNICATION PROGRAMS IN COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND TECHNICAL INSTITUTES IN NORTH CAROLINA

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The College Reading Association along with other professional organizations in reading has long been concerned with reading at the college level. In reviewing the literature, reported in professional journals and summaries of conference procedings, it would seem that one segment of reading, as it is related to higher education, needs more attention: reading at the community junior colleges and technical institutes.

Nothing has happened in education in the past fifty years to equal the rapid growth and development of these new two-year institutes. Every state now has at least one junior college while several states, California, Florida, and North Carolina, are striving toward the goal of putting community colleges within commuting range of nearly all their population. In North Carolina, we have to date, fifty such schools serving over one hundred counties with request for the founding of additional institutions now before the state legislature.

There are numerous reasons to explain this rapid growth: primarily, however, it is the growing demand and acceptance on the part of our population for the opportunity to obtain an education beyond the high school level. We have noted within the past few years the national trend toward the philosophy that education can play a major role in raising the level of aspiration of men and women as well as improving their social conditions. The extent to which community colleges can meet this need will be based on their effectiveness in working with the students who come to their doors—open, revolving or closed. With the advent of universal education at this level came the open-door admission policy. Higher education thus commits itself to providing an education to all who come and who can profit from instruction.

Institutions of higher education have, in the past, prided themselves upon their admission standards. Often the degree of acceptance by the academic community was in direct relationship to the scores of the freshmen class on entrance examinations. In contrast, community colleges find that instead of a relatively homogeneous population with a minority of poor students who come from a particular stratum of society, their student body is comprised of a cross section of the total population with the remedial student in the majority. If the national trend toward even higher admission standards in the four year college continues, we can expect an even larger number of remedial students in community and junior college classrooms.

With this population, a major concern of the institutions has become remedial education or developmental studies. The colleges have established or are in the process of establishing courses and curricula to deal with the low-achieving student so as to raise the student's level of operation to a point where he can enter college parallel courses, technical or trade programs.

It is that purpose of this paper, not to describe or present, a program, but rather to raise a series of questions to which answers must be found if our programs of remediation are to be successful and to identify problems which institutions have encountered in the organization of such programs.

The first question to be answered relates to the purposes of remedial/developmental studies programs. What we are trying to do to the students, and how successful are we in our attempts? Two-year institutions report little or no research regarding the success or failure of remedial programs. Most of the research studies reported do so in terms of pre and post test scores but fail to mention the success of the students when placed in other programs or curricula. Community junior colleges have received little encouragement to conduct research or have been told that this is not their role and therefore most programs have been organized on a trial-and-error basis or fashioned after an existing program. In North Carolina alone, we have identified sixteen different programs or approaches which have been organized on a local basis usually on the notion or inspiration of the person assigned the responsibility to develop a good program.

In relation to this question, that of purpose, I would ask, "What do we mean by remedial education?" By definition, remediation means making up, remedying deficiencies. However, is this remediation in terms of the student's expressed needs, or by our own definition of what he needs? Or to put it another way, is it to get the student from where he is to where he wants to be, or to where we feel he must be in order to meet our standards?

We have the student, we have the program, but what do we really know about him? Often our knowledge is restricted to a face in the classroom, a face without expression or one expressing hostility, high school grades, rank and scores on admission tests. Through the interpretation of this descriptive data we are not confident of where the student is. Yet, we act with the same degree of confidence with this information in prescribing for the student where we want him to be through the control of his educational experiences. In reference to our programs and means of evaluation one fact is alarming—the large number of students who fail or drop-out. We attempt to "evaluate" these students with the same instruments and techniques that we have used to study others, and on whom the tests were standardized. Yet, these students come from entirely different backgrounds.

Which brings us to the second question—"Who is the student?" "Why are they at our institution?" "What are their goals and objectives, what do they want to get from their educational experiences?" "Do we know what they like, enjoy or want to do?" "And how do these students feel about themselves?" "What about their previous educational experiences—their school courses, and teachers?" "In what areas do they feel successful and confident?" In a recent study of students in community colleges this question was asked of the students. The alarming fact was that they had difficulty in identifying what they liked and the majority felt they would not succeed.

It is in this area, knowledge and understanding of the student, that perhaps our programs are weakest. We are working with students who lack motivation, direction, a clear understanding of what college requires, or the opportunity it presents. Many of these students have not had the advantages of a middle class childhood. They have not been exposed to a constant emphasis of the values of education, and it may very well be that the very nature of the community college as a commuter school perpetuates this problem in that it prevents the student from building friendships with other students who have the same interest and goals. It would seem that priority must be given, on a nationwide basis, to the development of a system which will provide better ways of assessing the students with whom we work, thus enabling us to build programs with new techniques and methods which provide remediation but in terms of expressed needs, objectives, and based on previous experiences.

What about our programs, how effective are they? What are the characteristics of a good program, what do we look for? As I have already related, in North Carolina alone we have identified sixteen different programs each supposedly meeting the needs of their students. In one we find an entire quarter devoted to the study of vocabulary, while in another only programmed material is used. A cursory review of the literature reveals an equally large number of different programs being reported. Although the description of the programs vary, most recognize or include certain basic reading skills and abilities. However, with student bodies which vary in self-concepts, experiences, etc., in what ways do the programs, or should the programs, at the community junior college level differ from those at senior institutions. In the design of the curriculum, is the initial problem of the student that of basic reading skills, or, one which first provides opportunities for the students to learn to communicate more effectively with others in an environment of active involvement where the student is recognized as an individual?

To this point we have been concerned with questions related to existing programs their students and purposes. With these questions in mind, I would now like to turn to the area of program organization.

In November 1968, the Learning Institute was asked to conduct a series of conferences for community college personnel related to the area of developmental studies. As part of the effort to collect background information we surveyed a sampling of the institutions to determine what their major problem areas were in either the design or operation of a program. Basically the survey covered five broad areas: objectives and goals, organization, the student, instructional areas and procedures, and evaluation. Although there was not complete agreement by the institutions on the major problems, two areas did stand out—program organization and instruction. A great deal of frustration was expressed by administrators in regard to the organization of a reading program and in the location of a staff. One dean was quite honest when he said, "We fly by the seat of our pants and hope that eventually we find the right program. At this time, we have won a few, lost a few, and a few have been rained out."

Reading Program

What are the problem areas? We found that in program organization, the determination of needs and the setting of objectives and goals were not a problem; however, the lack of resource centers and consultants were the primary concern. Under the heading organization—administrators and the faculty were most concerned with the initial screening procedures, the selection of tests, and student evaluation procedures. It was interesting to note that the enlistment of faculty aid and support was not considered a problem. In category three—The Student—a conflict arose which points again to the basic weakness, knowledge and understanding of the student. The staff members who were responsible for the remedial programs responded that sufficient information was available about the student, e.g., high school grades, rank, college placement scores, and reading ability. Yet, they expressed concern that the students did not accept the program, were not motivated or interested. The high drop-out rate was also listed as a problem. In regard to the student, I feel that we use test information to play God. "You can go into this program, but you can't enroll in these. We gave you a test and we know what you are capable of." Let's be honest with ourselves, we really don't know anything about them. As previously indicated, the area of instruction presented the greatest number of problems, not only from the standpoint of basic reading skills but also methods and classroom organization. Since the effectiveness of most programs reported was based on a comparison of pre and post test scores, the institutions were not overly concerned with evaluation.

One final question is left to be answered, who should teach the remedial student? Experience and research has shown that often it is a "subject-matter" specialist who received the assignment for these classes, usually the newest member of the faculty or department, without tenure or prestige. Often they are inexperienced, but assigned the responsibility of working with perhaps the most difficult assignment. What effect do those faculty members who are arbitrarily assigned to a remedial class, without special training for remedial work, have on the student's attitude and achievement? To what extent are they able to motivate these students?

On the other hand, we find elementary teachers being employed. The assumption is that since the student's skills are on an elementary level then this teacher is best qualified.

One college administrator summed up the problem in this manner, "Remedial education is rapidly becoming our major concern, and to meet this challenge we must develop a new breed of teachers who understand, are interested in these students and who can build programs in which the students are successful."

Our newspapers, television, and radio tell us daily that to many students educational procedures are irrelevant and they are lost in the institutional jargon and bureaucracy while tradition is just another obstacle to be climbed.

In the community junior college tradition is a thing of the future. Here we have the opportunity to do something for people—people who up to this point have often been failures—to offer new kinds of programs for new kinds of students.

THE VALUE OF ORGANIZATION AND GRAPHIC AIDS IN READING

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It is generally accepted that the best procedure for reading a study-type selection such as those found in most high school and college textbooks involves a process which begins by a survey of the selection as a means of securing an overview and establishing purposes for reading. Without doubt one of the most useful procedures in making this initial survey is for the reader to discover the author's outline or organizational pattern by the way he makes use of introductions, titles, sub-titles and summaries when he writes the chapter.[1] In this connection, practically all content area textbooks beyond the intermediate grades utilize a variety of such organizational aids which purport to assist the reader in the comprehension and recall of the material read.

In the main, these aids consist of introductions; a series of headings, each of which bears some distinct relationship to the other headings and to the content of the selection; summaries; and certain pictorial and graphic aids, such as pictures, maps, graphs, tables and charts.

Throughout the years writers of textbook materials and teachers have assumed that students automatically make use of these aids and that they actually do contribute materially to the comprehension and subsequent recall of the material read. The evidence in relation to these assumptions, however, is conflicting and inconclusive.

In a study involving the use of reading aids in academic materials with college students, Robinson and Hall[2] concluded that the presence of headings in the text material made no significant difference in the comprehension of those students as compared with that of students who read the same material with the headings removed. In a similar study with Air Force trainees, Christensen and Stordahl[3] used material with six different patterns of organizational aids: an outline at the beginning of the passage, a summary at the beginning of the passage, a summary at the end of the passage, underlining of main points, headings in statement form, and headings in question form. They concluded that "the organizational aids in this experiment did not affect comprehension as measured by the comprehension tests." Landry[4] secured similar results in a study involving fifth grade pupils.

While these studies throw considerable doubt on the worth of organizational aids, writers have persisted in their belief that they can and should be of value. In attempting to explain this seeming paradox, both Landry[5] and Robinson and Hall[6] suggested that the reason might well be that students are not fully aware of the importance and purpose of such aids. Consequently, it makes little difference whether the aids are there or not.

In an effort to throw further light on the problem, one of the present writers has on numerous occasions asked students in his undergraduate and graduate classes to perform two types of tasks:

1. Using standard outline form with topics at three levels of subordination, students were asked to indicate the type of heading they would use for each division of the outline when transforming the outline into text.
2. Using a well-organized selection with three levels of headings (i.e., center heads, side heads, and paragraph heads), the students were asked to reconstruct the author's outline, using nothing but the headings.

Generally speaking, the results have been disappointing, to say the least. Only rarely have students shown evidence of knowledge of the relationship of headings of different values, e.g., that all paragraph headings appearing under a given side head are merely subdivisions of that side head, and so on.

Since there is some evidence to support the contention that students frequently fail to make full use of organizational aids because of deficiencies in their knowledge of these aids, it seems reasonable to assume that a specific training program designed to eradicate the deficiencies might result in proper utilization of the aids, with a corresponding increase in comprehension and recall.

As a result of the above assumptions, a somewhat informal investigation was conducted with the view to exploring further the feasibility of such a training program and whether or not it would result in better utilization of organizational aids. More specifically, the purpose of the study was twofold: (1) to devise and evaluate a training program designed to promote understanding of certain organizational and graphic aids commonly used in textbooks, and (2) to determine the effect of these on reading comprehension and recall of students who had received the training.

Approximately three hundred pupils at the junior high school level were selected for use as the initial population in the study, the assumption being that subjects at this level would be less likely at the outset to possess a knowledge of the aids to be used.

Since the second phase of the study required subjects who possessed a functional knowledge of the organizational and graphic aids in question, it was necessary to devise and administer a training program designed to promote an understanding of the aids in order to guarantee a sufficient number of cases who would satisfy the criterion. The lessons and practice exercises which were developed dealt with all of the aids mentioned earlier and attempted to establish the purpose of each aid, to demonstrate how it could be used to the reader's advantage, and to give practice in using the aid for the purpose intended.

Tests to be used as measures of the subjects' knowledge of the various aids at the end of the training program were needed. Two sub-tests of the **Iowa Tests of Basic Skills** were selected for appraising map reading and graphs and tables. An informal test was constructed to cover the other aids.

A preliminary form of the informal test and one form of the Iowa sub-tests were administered as pre-tests to determine areas of gross deficiency, then the lessons and practice exercises were administered over a period of about six weeks at the rate of three sessions per week. Some practice exercises were used independently between class sessions.

Upon completion of the training program, alternate forms of the standardized tests and a revised form of the informal test were administered to all subjects, and five treatment groups were formed from those who scored above arbitrary cutoff points of the tests. These groups were comparable from the standpoint of their scores on the organizational aids test, reading achievement and intelligence.

An appropriate selection which incorporated most of the organizational and graphic aids which were dealt with in the training program was chosen from a science textbook, and then rewritten in five forms as follows: Form 1 contained only the text material, but with no introduction, summary, headings, or pictorial and graphic aids. Form 2 was identical to Form 1 except for the addition of an introduction which contained questions relating to the content of the selection. Form 3 was identical to Form 2 except for the addition of a summary statement. Form 4 was identical to Form 3 except for the inclusion of center and side heads where appropriate. Form 5 contained all of the original aids, including an introduction, summary, headings, and appropriate pictorial and graphic aids. These five revised forms were checked with the Dale-Chall Readability Formula to assure comparability in terms of difficulty. All fell within the 9-10 grade range.

A comprehension test based on the major concepts and pertinent details presented in the text material was constructed for use in appraising the subjects' comprehension and recall of the material after it had been read. Since all forms of the selection contained the same material, only one form of the test was essential.

Each of the five treatment groups then read a different form of the text selection and immediately took the accompanying comprehension test. For example, Treatment Group 1 read the selection with no aids, Treatment Group 2 read the selection with only the introduction added, and so on.

One week after the initial reading and immediate recall test, the same test was administered a second time to all subjects for the purpose of appraising the effect of the various organizational and graphic aids on delayed recall.

It should be made clear at the outset that this study was largely exploratory: hence there was a lack of certain rigid controls. Also, complete test data were not available at the time of this report. Because of these limitations, the findings reported here must be considered as tentative and merely suggestive of what appears to be a promising area for further investigation. The results are summarized under the following categories: the effectiveness of the training program, the effect of organizational and graphic aids on comprehension, and the effect of these aids on delayed recall.

The Effectiveness of the Training Program

Since the primary purpose of the training program was to assure minimum competency of the subjects in regard to the aids rather than to assess the amount of growth they had made in their knowledge of these devices, complete pre-test data on how the subjects stood in reference to these skills at the outset were not secured. It was apparent from the data available, however, that there were gross deficiencies among the subjects in their knowledge and ability to use the aids in question prior to the training program.

At the end of the training period when both standardized and informal tests were administered, the majority of the subjects scored at or above the minimal criterion scores necessary in order to be included in one of the treatment groups.

This indicated that most subjects did show substantial gain in their knowledge of organizational and graphic aids as a result of the training program and that all subjects retained in all five of the treatment groups did possess an awareness of these aids and their intended purpose.

Effect of Aids on Comprehension

The comprehension test which was administered immediately after the five treatment groups had read their assigned forms of the text selection revealed the following: There was no significant difference between the test scores of (a) group that read material with no aids, (b) the group that read material with an introduction added, and (c) the group that read material containing an introduction and a summary. It should be noted, however, that as each aid was added to the text material, comprehension did increase, though not significantly. There was a significant difference when Treatment Group 4 (i.e., introduction, summary, and headings) and Treatment Group 5 (i.e., introduction, summary, headings, and pictorial and graphic aids) were compared with each of the other groups but there was no significant difference between the comprehension of Group 4 and Group 5.

Since the groups which read material containing introductions and summaries did not comprehend significantly better than the group that read the same material with no organizational aids at all, it appears that the introduction and the summary contributed little to the comprehension of the material read. On the other hand, the presence of headings in the text appeared to aid materially in the comprehension of that material when it was read by subjects who were known to possess a knowledge of heading values.

Some additional comprehension was gained when pictorial and certain graphic aids were added to the text: however, the amount of the increase was not significant. It appears, therefore, that while all of the organizational and graphic aids did contribute something to the comprehension of material containing them, appropriate headings probably contributed more to the understanding of the material than any of the others.

Effect of Aids on Delayed Recall

One week after the selections were read, the same comprehension test that was used to measure immediate recall was administered a second time in an effort to determine the effect of the organizational and graphic aids on delayed recall.

Precisely the same pattern was revealed as for the immediate recall test. The only difference was that the first three groups scored lower on the delayed recall test than on the first test, as was expected, but Treatment Groups 4 and 5 actually scored slightly higher on the latter test, though not significantly higher, suggesting that at least headings may contribute to remembering what has been read as well as to initial comprehension.

It is evident that organizational and graphic aids, particularly headings, can be of value to the reader in his quest for information from the printed page, but that such value is more likely to be forthcoming if specific training having to do with their purpose and use is provided.

The evidence suggests that perhaps the most important aspect of the training program should be directed toward the development of understandings regarding the hierarchy of heading values and that these headings actually reflect the author's outline. Although there is no concrete evidence as yet, it appears likely, too, that such training not only would contribute to improving reading comprehension and recall, but might also have some salutary effect on the students' own organizational ability. Observations over a number of years have led the present writers to the conclusion that there is an appalling lack of organizational skill reflected in the writing of most students.

Finally, while it is true that a number of studies have been done on the value of organizational aids in reading and study, none in which secondary school or college level students were used as subjects has attempted to appraise the effect of such aids after specific training use had been provided. It appears, therefore, that here indeed is a fruitful area for some well-controlled research.

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PHONICS: AN APPRAISAL OF SOME CLASSROOM-TESTED TECHNIQUES

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The layman is quite unprepared for the scope and bitterness of the controversy which divides the field of reading. After at least a hundred years of expertise in the area, reading remains nearly as much a mystery as it ever was. This is both a curious and an appalling situation.

What seems to have happened in the area of beginning reading is that the so-called phonics method became the entrenched dogma of the first half of the nineteenth century and was taught by all the schools and advocated by most of those concerned with reading. It consisted of a learned schema which sought to connect certain sounds in English with their letter equivalents. The child was first taught the phonics alphabet. B, for example, was the sound buh, D was duh, T was tuh, and so forth. When this alphabet had been learned sufficiently, the child proceeded to sound out words: CAT was kah-aah-tuh, DOG was dah-aaw-guh, and so on. Many rules were taught which sought to make clear the distinctions between similar spellings which were pronounced differently. Advocates of the phonics method later had to admit that only about 85% of English words follwed the phonics rules and the remaining 15% were taught simply as memory words.

There were murmurs of discontent with the phonics method from about 1850 to 1900, and a new method—the look-say—was introduced during this time. Although synthetic phonic systems were re-emphasized at the beginning of the Twentieth Century, the success of the whole word approach seemed so great that by 1930 it was the new orthodoxy and is still firmly in favor with many experts. The proponents of this system argued that since English cannot be termed a completely phonic language, it is foolish to try to teach rules at all. Instead, the child should learn words directly; he should, for example, associate a word with a picture, not with a sound. When he had learned a number of sight words, he was presented with them in combinations to form stories. Often he is rewarded for success in guessing a meaning. Rewards for inferring meanings of words from pictures reinforce guessing, in addition to reading, behavior. Thus, the pupil who misreads the sentence, "My father was in a battle" as "My father was in a war" may be rewarded, generally with praise, for getting the right meaning. When the student is encouraged to ignore the printed word, obviously he will have difficulty learning its appearance, and, furthermore, will have difficulty spelling it. The predicted results of a look-say orientation seem to have come to pass, and there has been a slow but definite movement back to phonics.

To meet the criticism of a look-say emphasis in reading instruction, the eclectic school has grown up. Advocates of the eclectic method maintain that both a phonics approach and a look-say orientation are necessary to read well. Some of the earlier members of the eclectic school were criticized for the practice of beginning their reading instruction with a look-say plan of introducing fifty or so sight words; through which they labored until the students grasped them, at which time they introduced to the students incidental phonics and word-attack skills. Thus, when the pupil had reached third grade or so, he was supposed to be using the combined methods to advantage. It seems superfluous to have to point out that a beginning reader in the above situation is clearly not going to learn both methods and employ both simultaneously, since the approaches to decoding are introduced, and learned, as contradictory.

Recent advocates of an eclectic approach argue that phonics is only one way to decode words; and at least one authority on phonics seems to suggest that the longer the beginning reader relies primarily on one approach to arrive at the meaning of words the worse his reading will become. What child of five has any difficulty arriving at the conclusion that letters of his name printed on a gift are the encoded speech sounds which form his name? What middle-aged adult who survived elementary school without a smidgeon of phonics is unable to "sound out" the word "F-E-N"? What evidence is there anyway that adults taught primarily with a phonics approach are any better at decoding new words than are adults taught reading by a whole word approach? Just might an early overemphasis on a phonic skills produce a response set which would remain on into one's adult life. In other words, might not adult reading be impaired if phonics is overemphasized, because the individual has been conditioned to attend to unnecessarily small phonic units?

This brief history and commentary on phonics and beginning reading instruction would be remiss without anecdotally recounting some of the "atmosphere" attendant on the field of beginning reading. One is struck immediately with the vast quantity of research done on reading, and with the utter worthlessness of most of it. Experiment after experiment has been done with no other end, apparently, than gaining a graduate degree or publishing in order not to perish. Titles like "Cerebral Dominance in the Socially Advantaged Sioux" abound. Many papers are filled with high sounding jargon, e.g. "veridical mountebank." And yet, the sum total of it all, especially for the classroom teacher who would like to know of some scientifically sound approaches to beginning reading instruction, is nothing. Any conclusion can be refuted if one is allowed to fudge on the data a bit, and rigorous control seems to be a foreign element in most of the studies of reading. The reading field is divided into groups which regard each other not as wrong, but as fundamentally immoral.

Nevertheless, what insights concerning the place of phonics are available to the teacher who wishes each of her students a facile ability in unlocking the encoding of English in printed form? A few general rules, based upon research in the fields of reading, English and psychology, can be suggested.

1. **Teach sound-symbol relationships which can be generalized to the functioning verbal repertoire of the individual student.** Here, we might note the flaw of the so-called "synthetic phonics" approach to the business of reading. The average child of five has a sophistication about English sentence structure and vocabulary which his basal reader takes from five to ten years to approach. Most children speak comprehensible, patterned English when they begin to read, and the problem is to show them the printed equivalents for their already-mastered spoken English. A strictly synthetic phonics approach concentrates on teaching children exactly as if they didn't know how to speak at

all! They are asked to learn a list of new sounds, like "buh", sounds which do not exist in the English language, and never have. It is true that a B sound begins the word "band", but it is not true that the sound is even remotely like "buh". The child, thus, is forced to learn an artificial new language, one composed of sounds like "buh", "tuh", "eeh", "aah", and the rest. Once this new language is learned, he must attempt to form complex sound-combinations.

2. **Teach phonics generalization inductively.** Until more sophisticated phonics material is published, the classroom teacher would do well to approach the teaching of phonics inductively, by beginning with the way in which the individual student himself pronounces the letter or letter combinations within words. The student should then be given intensive practice in breaking the code of new words by applying his newly acquired knowledge of grapheme-phoneme correspondences.

3. **Use a "dual" ("synthetic" and "analytic") phonics approach.** Since the student of beginning reading is to learn as soon as possible the relationship between the sounds of his own language and the symbols on the printed page, the class-room teacher should be concerned with the success with which the student analyzes the component sounds within words and the success with which he synthesizes individual letter sounds to form words. My feeling is that there are some students who learn sound-symbol relationships more effectively by analysis than by synthesis, and vice versa.

4. **Teach phonic generalizations only as long as the instruction helps, rather than hinders, reading behavior.** This point hardly needs to be made, but there are still a few classroom teachers who continue to teach phonics to students who have already learned the relationship between the sounds of their language and the symbols on the printed page.

5. **Teach phonic generalizations which have a high degree of generalizability.** In order for the child to learn sound-symbol relationships efficiently, it may be necessary to combine "phonics" instruction with "whole word", "linguistic", and "language experience" methods. Well-designed and carefully executed research studies should soon indicate the most effective combination of learning steps for the individual student.

Finally, the question to be answered seems not to be whether we should or should not teach phonics, but rather how we can teach a better phonics. Phonics instruction has been shown to be an effective way to teach reading. The linguistic method as well as the whole word and language experience methods have been researched and proved effective in teaching beginning reading. What the researcher must now provide for the classroom teacher are the individual formulas showing the right combination of approaches for Johnny, Mary, and each of their friends.

READING AND AUTHORITY

by
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This is a collaborative paper, and I am the unimportant collaborator. My job was to bring the paper to the conference—so here I am and here it is. As a teacher of English teachers, I have been sitting on the sidelines of reading for some years, watching my friends work at the nation's most important task. On one issue only, I have bitten my tongue. The main part of this paper deals with this issue.

What I have to say about it is lesser. I am astonished that the reading establishment continues to operate on a single Biblical text—from St. John: "In the beginning was the word." Now I am as anxious as you to see children make friends with words. But a child has no more business dealing with a whole word while ignoring its parts than a pilot has in dealing with a whole airplane while ignoring its parts. The two enterprises are equally hazardous. If a word is irregular, all the more reason why the child needs to know what is regular about it —just as the pilot should know the three good engines when one is out. Give me one totally irregular English word, and I will write it one thousand times right after this meeting.

But let me state what I gather is the establishment position on beginning reading: there is no one best method to teach it, so let's play safe and democratic and teach sight, configuration, context, guess, experience, linguistic, ITA, Delacato, analytic, synthetic, and syllabic phonics. If it works for the individual, let's use it.

Well, I have this comment. I teach a course called English methods, and I have found only one. The only way I know how to teach English or anything else is to provide people with what they need in order to teach themselves. If language is a code, why hold back what is needed to break it?[1] Empirical research on methods is beside the point. The content of reading instruction has to be breaking the code. No person can possibly read any word without some knowledge of its phonological components. Recite, yes. Read, no. So why all the discussion about methods? Kids need insight, not misinformation, about the system, right from the start. They also need love and encouragement—but those are not methods. They're simply basic human relations. Children need the earliest and simplest possible control of the system; and this is a matter of content validity, not empirical comparison of methods. You can't fly an airplane safely or read a word safely if you don't know how it works.

But I don't teach kids to read. My collaborator does that. So let me let her speak for herself, with my voice: As someone who has taught English at the junior high school and college freshman level for six years, and has tutored students with reading problems for twelve years, I am for phonics, but not primarily because of its value in the teaching of reading, great as that value is.

There is one factor in the teaching of reading that is not mentioned in the literature. This omission is surprising, since it is the most important factor in the everyday experience of the child and must be the most depressing for the teacher. I try to counteract it in my tutoring.

I asked one of my small victims one day what he thought was the most important thing in reading. This child was supposed to be the outdoor type. "Reading or school?" he asked. "Reading." He thought a moment. "My head," he said finally. "What else?" "My eyes." "Is that all?" "Oh, a book." Our sessions consisted of a phonics principle illustrated by exercises in Flesch, and then reading, first from a reader, then from A. A. Milne, and three months later, from Teen Age Tales. He thought this book was a put on, still thinking he was dumb, until he read, "You have probably studied about the man. His name was Eli Whitney." "Studied about him? I'm in the second grade!" Without the phonics information, he could not have reached Whitney so soon, but information is not enough. What did I do? True? I worked alone with him but only two to three hours a week. True, he was intelligent, but this is not unusual. What made the difference? **I did not go down the authority road.**

The first day, I put his reader aside and showed him letters had sounds. When you put the sound of the letters together you get the sound of the word. I suggested that he help himself to a bottle of Coke and a column of words. I told him he could read. All he had to do was to do it. As I expected, he did not believe me. He waited for me to tell him the first word. I waited for him to tell me the first word. After two minutes of silent prayer, and it was prayer on my part, he gasped out a sound close enough to the word "mat" so that he corrected himself. Then he looked at me and the book with contemptuous astonishment. He knew this wasn't reading. He had alphabet pictures with initial letters on them, and he had a page of words. I was sitting across the room, doing nothing. And he had heard himself say a word he hadn't had. This was something, but it wasn't reading. Twenty minutes later, after we had struggled with the words for better, or mostly for worse, he picked up his first grade reader, **School Friends**, and opened it to the first page. "Time . . . for . . . School," he read triumphantly. We had begun a typical remedial reading situation. Within a week he was in charge. "If I read one row right, we go on to the next page. O.K.? "O.K.," I said meekly, knowing that he was now doing the doing, that his reading now belonged to him, and that it would never again belong to teacher.

It takes three pre-primers of one set to build a sight vocabulary of fifty-six words. This means the teacher says each word. The child is mentally helpless. He can "read" the pictures, of course. Even with the Lippincott series, unless children put letter sounds together easily and immediately, the teacher does it. You can be dictatorial with phonics. Teachers who have been taught or have been teaching the sight method can change method, but they do not change their basic approach, and no matter how kindly they are, dictatorship is dictatorship. One manual says that with the already learned sight vocabulary, the pupils can read the primer on their own. It is to the author's credit that "on their own" is in quotation marks.

Do we really think that the standard grouping into the bright, who memorize easily, the dumb, who are doing what they are told, and the impossible, who have given the whole thing up as a bad job, represents the working intelligence of children? In my experience, children realize early that they are not really doing anything. They are only gluing or pasting words to the insides of their heads. Many of them are not amenable to the stupidity of this method, so, deciding they are school-dumb, they give up on it, and start playing the authority game with the teacher. Some of them, finding that not remembering a word brings sympathetic attention, institute personally the same program that the major publishers have followed: they lower the required number of words in the sight vocabulary. They may not be reading the book, but they are reading the teacher. The whole sight, picture, configuration, context, initial consonant guessing game played with teacher's chips does not impress them as sensible, so they play dominance, and if they can get teacher to do all the work, while they do none of it, they have won. They're right, aren't they? Is it intelligent to pretend that brute memory and guessing are sensible methods for reading the thousands of words they know in listening and speaking? Tommy may be dumb, but he is not that dumb. What he wants from you is respect, not sympathy. But if he is forced to fish frantically for the meaning of a blob said by a baby named Sally, well, forget it.

I have tried to understand for years why we have deliberately employed rigid authoritarian memory, the only possible method for non-alphabetic writing, when we have an alphabet, a sound-code, the most generative and creative invention of the human race. Apparently, because ours is less than one-fifth irregular, we have thrown the whole thing out, for at least the first year, by which time the memory universe is firmly rotating. We are consequently reduced to brainwashing as an initial method of teaching.

Well, what's so bad about it? What does rote memory do? It stiffens. Memory is the static part of our mental equipment. How many of you were in a mild panic yesterday when you saw again someone you had not seen since last year, and who remembered your name? The memory method produces panic, and it produces insecurity. Children to whom the words don't come easily have to guess at them. They have no way of being even reasonably sure. This mental insecurity leads directly to a low opinion of themselves intellectually. That is taught. Even the good readers become word guessers forever, reading what they would like to be there, instead of what is. And so this psychologically damaging and least productive method, brute memory, is our most popular method for teaching the most important skill, reading. All over the country every weekday we are subjecting children to this inflexible tyranny. We cover it with friendliness and ersatz enthusiasm for the stories in the readers, which are idiotic nothings written in basalese, but it operates just the same.

However, isn't memory necessary? Certainly it is necessary, for what you cannot learn any other way. We must memorize zero through nine. Suppose ten were also one figure, and eleven, and ninety-eight and so on. How many mathematicians would there be? The sight method insisted on word recognition. This means recalling a word form you have memorized. How about phonics? There word recognition means recognizing a word you know but have never seen. How much memory is involved? First, twenty-six letters, and the ways they make up forty-four sounds. These relations are used all the time. They are tools, not end-products, and they are used as learned. Second, the irregular portions of so-called irregular words, less than half the amount of material that would be required to memorize them as words. Most irregularities occur in common words used frequently. Children do not object to misbehaving words. It gives them something to identify with. This is the one place for partial guessing by context. This memory load leaves some storage space for Shakespeare, instead of filling it up with something and surprise. Unfortunately, sight-method series teach phonic rules too little and too late—as extra baggage. This is memorizing wholesale. It is a good reason for spending so much time on comprehension (which is memorized itself). The child is too busy trying to recall and guess the word to bother about its meaning.

The whole authority business is upside down. The reading third of a classroom often cannot be heard by the teacher unless they shout. But when we make a behavior rule, we try to give children a reason so they don't have to swallow the regulation whole. We want their reasonable participation when possible. But when we work with their minds we are back in the dark ages. We don't give alphabetic reasons. The word is surprise because it is surprise. So I am for phonics, not just because it is our system of coding our spoken language, but because you don't have to be dictator when you use it, pleasantly forcing children not to think. You can be a dictator with it, but you don't have to be.

Bibliographical Reference

1. I have discussed the relation between code and meaning in "Decoding and the Quest of Meaning," in **Journal of Reading Behavior** (forthcoming).

Abstract

PROMOTING AND EXTENDING WIDE READING

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Much has been done in research to provide avenues for extending and promoting wide reading for pupils and adults. However, nó definite conclusions seem to have been made except that motivation is the key and this often cannot be located or triggered because of various rigid sources—moral values, school curriculum, among others. We must not just present preferences to pupils to get them interested in reading. We must develop techniques to capitalize on those interests which may be lurking already within the pupil. Some suggestions for motivating pupils into wide reading are:

(1) Get books in view.
(2) Read to pupils and show a desire for it.
(3) Use mixed-media approaches; get new packaged programs.
(4) Saturate and relate reading and books to real life.
(5) Stretch the imagination for ways of selling printed matter.